OCTOBER 1804.

ART. CLXXXII. *A Chronological Hiſtory of the Diſcoveries in the South Sea, or Pacific Ocean. Part I. Commencing with an Account of the Earlieſt Diſcovery of that Sea by Europeans, and terminating with the Voyage of Sir Francis Drake, in* 1579. *Illuſtrated with Charts. By James Burney, Captain of the Royal Navy.* Royal 4to. pp. 383. Price 1 *l.* 7 *s.* Nicol. 1803. London.

WE have already given our opinion of the value and importance of a well digeſted hiſtory of the progreſs of maritime diſcovery *. We were fully aware of the difficulty of the undertaking, and the time it muſt neceſſarily occupy, if the taſk devolved upon a ſingle individual. Thus circumſtanced, Mr. Clarke did as much in his firſt volume as could reaſonably be expected from any perſon. We are not, however, diſpleaſed to find that Captain Burney has marked out for himſelf a different tract. He has adopted a plan, in which ſucceſs is more eaſily attainable; a plan to which others may contribute: and, by attending to his rules, unity of ſubject may be maintained equally by ſeveral perſons as by one.

To form a complete hiſtory of voyages, our author propoſes, that the buſineſs be divided into diſtinct claſſes, one or more of which might be committed to the diligence of a particular perſon: the *firſt* claſs may contain, ſays Mr. B., the voyages to the North of Europe, thoſe in the North Seas, and towards the North Pole. The *ſecond* claſs, thoſe along the weſtern coaſt of Africa, to the Cape of Good Hope; and the diſcoveries of the Atlantic Iſlands. The *third*, eaſt of the Cape to China, including the eaſtern Archipelago. The *fourth* might contain the whole of the diſcovery of the eaſtern ſide of America, except the Strait of Magalhanes. The *fifth* claſs may comprehend the circumnavigations and voyages to the South Sea. With theſe, the diſcoveries on the weſtern coaſt of North America are to be connected. New Holland might form a *ſixth* claſs. Theſe claſſes ſhould be modified accord-

* See our firſt volume, page 75.

ing to the inclination of thoſe who undertake any part of the taſk; and in each, chronological order may with eaſe be preſerved.

Captain Burney has choſen for the ſubject of the work before us, the diſcoveries made in the South Sea; and the reaſon which he aſſigns for this ſelection, is, that he ſerved as Lieutenant under Captain Cook in his two laſt voyages. It does not follow that every good officer will make a good writer, but it is always an advantage when an author poſſeſſes practical knowledge on the particular ſubject which he means to diſcuſs.

The reader will ſee from the title what he may expect from this volume; and to point out the plan purſued in it, we may quote the author's own opinion of the manner in which a complete account of a voyage ſhould be given.

"To form," ſays he, "a complete account of a voyage, it is neceſſary that no incident, remark, or obſervation, in any former relation, ſhall be omitted, which can be in the leaſt ſerviceable to ſcience,—which can excite intereſt, or ſatisfy curioſity: and to ſtate every thing remarkable or extraordinary, however uſeleſs and incredible; with, occaſionally, an obſervation on the degree of credit to which it appears entitled. It is likewiſe ſatisfactory, that many things, which appear of little uſe, and unintereſting, ſhould be noticed, though only a ſingle line be beſtowed on them; and not always the leaſt ſatisfactory for their being noticed with brevity. In ſhort, every thing ſhould be mentioned which poſſeſſes any proſpect of utility, and the quantity of remark may be proportioned to the importance, and to the occaſion; avoiding to ſeek brevity at the expence of the more valuable qualities of information and intereſt. All this might be admitted, and the accounts of voyages be yet greatly compreſſed, and at the ſame time enriched."

The firſt chapter of this volume contains a brief account of the diſcoveries made in the South Sea, previous to the voyage of Magalhanes, with other miſcellaneous information. It would be unneceſſary for us to detail what was done by Columbus and others, at this period; the ſketch given by Mr. B. makes a proper part of his plan, though to Engliſh readers in general the ſubject is well known. The boundary aſſigned by Mr. B. as the natural limits to the South Sea, is as follows: On its *eaſtern* part, it is formed by the weſtern coaſt of America, from Terra del Fuego to 60° north latitude. The *northern* limits are marked by the continuation of the American coaſt, from Mount St. Elias (60° N. L.,) towards the weſt, with the chain of iſlands called the Fox and Aleutian iſlands. The *weſtern* boundary may be deſcribed by a line drawn from the

Cape

Cape of Kamtſchatca towards the ſouth, paſſing by the Kurile Iſlands, and the eaſtern coaſt of the Japan Iſlands; from thence by Formoſa, and along the eaſt of the Philippines; by Gilolo; by the north and eaſtern coaſt of New Guinea, and by the eaſt coaſt of New Holland, to the ſouth-eaſt Cape of Van Demen's Land. And here it may not be improper to give our author's account of the origin of the name of this ſea:

"A particular poſition of the coaſt of that part of the American Continent, from whence the ſea on the other ſide was firſt diſcovered, appears to have ſtamped on it the denomination of the South Sea. The Iſthmus of Darien lies nearly eaſt and weſt; conſequently, there the two ſeas appear ſituated, the one north, and the other ſouth. If the new ſea had been firſt diſcovered from any part to the ſouth of the Bay of Panama, it would probably have received ſome other appellation. A conſequence reſulting from the name thus impoſed has been, that the Atlantic Ocean, by way of contra-diſtinction, has occaſionally been called the North Sea, even in its moſt ſouthern part."

The firſt regular voyage noticed by Mr. Burney is that of Fernando de Magalhanes; in which the enterpriſes of this great man are recorded, from his arrival at the Court of Spain, A. D. 1517, to the time of his death, which happened April 27, 1521. Before Captain Burney enters upon the ſubject, he very properly informs his readers to what ſources he is indebted for information; this is candid and liberal, it enables any perſon, diſpoſed to follow him, to examine for himſelf, how far the hiſtorian has been faithful to his author, and has acted the part of an induſtrious and judicious compiler. For the account of Magalhanes' voyage, he refers to Pietro Martire, a Milaneſe, as the beſt authority; to a narrative by Antonio Pigafetta Vincentino, a perſon who went out with Magalhanes; the character given of this writer by our author is, that "he was a man of obſervation, but with very moderate literary acquirements; he was fond of the marvellous, and much addicted to the ſuperſtitions of his time;" to Ramuſio's collection of voyages, in which there is a ſhort account ſaid to have been written by a Portugueze ſeaman, who ſailed with Magalhanes, and a narrative in the Italian language, addreſſed to Cardinal Salzubrgenſe; and to Antonio Herrera's hiſtory of the Indies, which is not only regarded by the public as well authenticated, but is full with reſpect to the early part of Magalhanes' Voyage, where Pigafetta's account is moſt defective.

Having deſcribed the number and ſize of the veſſels deſtined for this expedition, we are informed they ſet ſail from San

Lucar on the 20th of September, 1519; and that they reached the coaſt of Brazil on the 8th of the December following: the particular place at which Magalhanes landed, is ſuppoſed to be the Rio Janeiro of the Portugueze. The reception they met with here, is thus deſcribed;

"Immediately on their arrival, the natives came to the ſhips, bringing various refreſhments in great abundance. As a proof of the plenty of proviſions, as well as of the ſimplicity of the natives, it is related, that for a king out of a pack of cards, they gave in exchange ſix fowls, and thought they had a good bargain. For an hatchet they offered a ſlave; but this traffic Magalhanes prohibited, that cauſe of complaint might not be given to the Portugueze nation, and that the number of the conſumers of proviſions in the fleet might not be increaſed. In the ſequel, nevertheleſs, it appears that they took at leaſt one Brazilian with them."

"The Brazilians are thus deſcribed by Pigafetta: 'They are without religion. Natural intereſt is their only law. It is not uncommon to ſee men 125 years of age, and ſome of 140. They live in long houſes, or cabins they call *boc*, one of which ſometimes contains a hundred families. They are cannibals, but eat only their enemies. They are olive-coloured, well-made, their hair ſhort and woolly. They paint themſelves both in the body and in the face, but principally the latter. Moſt of the men had the lower lip perforated in three places, in which they wore ornaments, generally made of ſtone, of a cylindrical form, about two inches in length. Their Chief had the title of Cacique. They are of a good diſpoſition, and extremely credulous. When they firſt ſaw us put out our boats, and that they remained cloſe to the ſides of the ſhips or followed, they imagined them to be the children of the ſhips."

On the 11th of January they made Cape Santa Maria, at the entrance into the Rio de la Plata, where they took in wood and freſh water.

"This," ſays our author, "was the place where Juan de Solis had been killed; and probably on that account it was that the natives did not come near the ſhips. Some of them appeared in their canoes, but kept at a diſtance. Three boats were ſent towards them, on whoſe approach they fled. The Spaniards landed and purſued the Indians, but could not overtake any. They ſaw the trees that had been cut with European hatchets, and on the top of one tree a croſs, which had been erected, was ſtanding. One night a ſingle Indian in a canoe had the courage to venture on board the General's ſhip, which he entered without any ſymptom of fear. He had for clothing the ſkin of a goat. A ſilver porringer being ſhewn to him, he made ſigns that on ſhore there was plenty of that metal. Magalhanes gave him a linen ſhirt, and a red cloth waiſtcoat, and in the morning he was allowed to depart, in hopes that by his report

port of the treatment he had received, more of the natives would be encouraged to viſit the ſhips: but no others came, neither returned he any more. The natives here ſeen are deſcribed to have been of extraordinary large ſtature. *Semi-ſylveſtres ac nudos homines, ſpitamis duabus humanam ſuperantes ſtaturam.*"

At Port St. Julian, lat. 49° 18′ South, Magalhanes determined to winter; which produced a mutiny in his fleet: the method which he took to quell this ſpirit, exhibited reſolution and courage, but it manifeſted no ſymptom of humanity: the commander, indeed, had recourſe to aſſaſſination, to ſtop the progreſs of mutiny; this, and other circumſtances which attended it, reflect, in our opinion, diſgrace on Magalhanes, and we think Captain Burney, who is evidently of the ſame opinion, has not ſpoken of the tranſaction with all the indignation which it juſtly merited. We do not, however, mean to bring an accuſation againſt our author, becauſe in general the reflections which he makes upon the various facts which he has to record, are worthy the man of feeling and humanity, and becoming his character as an hiſtorian. An inſtance of this kind occurs, when ſpeaking of the treachery which Magalhanes made uſe of in decoying the natives of Port San Julian:

"To theſe people," ſays he, "Magalhanes was guilty of a treacherous breach of hoſpitality; however, among the Spaniſh diſcoverers, it might have been regarded as a matter of courſe, and perhaps as neceſſary. Wiſhing to detain the two youngeſt of theſe natives to carry with him to Spain, he prefaced the following ſtratagem to prevent their availing themſelves of their ſuperior ſize and ſtrength: Under the ſemblance of friendſhip, he preſented them with knives, beads, and other toys, ſo as to completely fill their hands: bright iron rings were then produced, which, as they much deſired, and could not well take in their hands, he propoſed to put on their legs; to which they unſuſpectingly conſented, and were by that means chained. When they diſcovered the ungenerous artifice, they became furious, and ſtruggled with all their might," Pigafetta unfeelingly adds, "howling and invoking *Setebos*, who was their principal devil, to come to their aſſiſtance."

From Port St. Julian, Magalhanes proceeded ſouthward, touching at Santa Cruz, and Cape de las Virgines, till at length he arrived at that ſtrait which ſeparates Tierra del Fuego from the Continent, and which has ever ſince gone by his name. Thirty-ſeven days after the diſcovery of the eaſtern entrance of this ſtrait, namely, on the 27th of November, 1520, they found themſelves again in the open ſea, the coaſt of Tierra del Fuego terminating to the weſtward in a cape, to

which they gave the name of *Cape Deſeado, the deſired Cape.* On this account public thankſgivings were ordered, and Magalhanes was ſo much pleaſed at finding a clear ſea before him, that he is ſaid to have ſhed tears.

Hence, the fleet took a north-weſterly direction, till January 24th, when they diſcovered a ſmall uninhabited iſland, which they named *San Pablo*; and, on the 4th of February, they met with another, which, on account of the number of ſharks near it, they called *Tiburones*; and the two collectively, though at the diſtance of two hundred miles from each other, they named Las Deſventuradas, or the *Unfortunate Iſlands*, as affording them no proviſions, and in every reſpect diſappointing their hopes.

On the 6th of March they diſcovered the Ladrone Iſlands, and in ten days after they came to anchor at the Philippines, at one of which Magalhanes was killed, "in a quarrel unneceſſarily engaged in, for a cauſe which cannot be defended, and in the proſecution of which he conſulted his preſumption, rather than his judgment." Such is the deciſion of Captain Burney with reſpect to the battle of Matan; who thus draws the character of the Commander of this expedition:

"A ſtrong and peculiar feature in his character appears to have been inflexible perſeverance. He was bent on the performance of whatſoever he undertook, and no common circumſtances of diſcouragement would turn him from his purpoſe. He was a man to encounter difficulties; whilſt he believed them ſurmountable, they increaſed the earneſtneſs of his purſuit. As a navigator, he was not inferior to any of his time. As a diſcoverer, he was ſecond only to Columbus, whoſe enterpriſe was ſo grand, that it left no room for an equal. Columbus achieved that which no man except himſelf had ever dared to undertake. The praiſe due to Magalhanes is, that he performed what no one before him had been able to accompliſh.

"Though it may be remarked, that Magalhanes did not encompaſs the globe, yet by his having, previous to his voyage, been in the Eaſt Indies, he was not many degrees ſhort of having made the circuit. The honour of being the firſt who completed the European navigation round the world, belongs, however, indiſputably to Magalhanes, by his ſailing in a weſterly route beyond the meridian of the Moluccas, which had before been diſcovered by an eaſtern route."

As a ſequel to this voyage, we learn that Barboſa and Serrano were appointed joint Commanders in Chief, in the place of Magalhanes: theſe, however, with twenty-ſix other Spaniards, were treacherouſly murdered at Zebu, and the command devolved on Carvallo, who conducted his countrymen firſt

firſt to the iſland Bohol, then to Mindanao, and afterwards, having touched at ſome ſmaller iſlands, they arrived at Borneo, which was the extent of this voyage. In their return, they paſſed to the ſouth of Mindanao to the Moluccas, from thence they ſteered ſouth-weſt for the Cape of Good Hope, which, after ſeveral weeks tempeſtuous weather, they paſſed, and made for the Cape de Verd Iſlands. They anchored at St. Jago; but as there was reaſon to apprehend that the Portugueze would be hoſtile, if it were known from whence the ſhip came, the people ſent on ſhore were inſtructed to ſay that they had come from America. By this device, they obtained the neceſſary ſupplies. Here alſo they diſcovered that their weſtern circumnavigation had occaſioned the difference of a day in the reckoning of time; the day being at St. Jago, Thurſday July the 10th; but by the account kept on board the ſhips it was Wedneſday the 9th only. On the 6th day of September the ſhip Vitoria arrived in Spain, the number of Europeans remaining in her being only eighteen.

"Thus," ſays our author, "at length was completed one of the moſt extraordinary and eventful voyages that has ever been undertaken; a voyage which cannot be contemplated, without producing impreſſions only to be communicated by original diſcovery. Whilſt the advancement of ſcience ſhall continue to intereſt mankind, Magalhanes, whoſe enterpriſe and perſeverance firſt practically demonſtrated the form of our planet, will be remembered with admiration and gratitude.

"The time expended between the departure of the fleet from Spain, and the return of the Vitoria, was three years and fourteen days; and the diſtance ſailed in different directions during that period, according to the ſhip's reckoning, was 14,160 leagues. The cargo brought home in the Vitoria conſiſted of 533 quintals of cloves, a conſiderable quantity of cinnamon, nutmegs, ſandal wood, beſides various articles of leſs importance."

We have been thus particular in our account of Magalhanes' voyage, being the firſt, and by far the moſt important, into the South Seas by a weſterly courſe. To him we are indebted for our knowledge of the limits of the continent of America towards the South; and the communication of the Atlantic with the South Sea. After his diſcoveries, the reſt was comparatively eaſy; it would, therefore, be occupying too much ſpace in our work, to trace the other voyages which are given in this volume. To many of our readers the hiſtories and documents from which Captain Burney has taken his account, are already familiar; for them, then, it is ſufficient to have exhibited the plan adopted in the volume now before us:

and it would be difficult to abridge the ſeveral narratives ſo as to give any degree of ſatisfaction to thoſe who are not acquainted with the voyages of our early travellers.

Mr. B., as the title of his work profeſſes, brings down his hiſtory no lower than the voyage of our countryman, Sir Francis Drake, which was undertaken at the end of the year 1577, and completed in about two years and ten months.

This was the firſt voyage made by the Engliſh round the world; but Drake was not the firſt of our countrymen who made an expedition into the South Seas. John Oxnam, who ſerved under Captain Drake in the Weſt Indies, had preceded him in the enterpriſe, the account of which may be given in ſhort, and will, we preſume, intereſt our readers.

In the year 1572-3, Captain Drake marched acroſs the Iſthmus of Darien, and in the courſe of the journey, he was informed that there was a great tree about the mid-way, from which he might at once diſcern the North Sea, whence he came, and the South Sea whither he was going. Having on the eighth day of his journey reached the tree, and from its top beheld the ſea of which he had heard ſuch golden reports, he beſought God to give him life and leave to ſail once in an Engliſh ſhip in that ſea; and then acquainted John Oxnam with his petition and purpoſe, who immediately proteſted, that unleſs the Captain beat him from his company, he would follow him.

Oxnam did not, however, wait for his Commander; for in 1575, he ſailed for the Weſt Indies, having the command of a ſhip of 120 tons burthen, and 70 men. He landed his men in the ſame place where Captain Drake had before landed, and laying his ſhip aſhore among the boughs of trees, he buried his guns in the ground, except two pieces of ordnance, which he took with him, beſides muſkets, and a ſufficient ſtore of proviſions. Thus furniſhed, he marched with his men, till they came to a river which ran into the South Sea. Here he built a pinnace, forty-five feet long, and fell down the river into that mighty ocean, where he made many rich captures, but was at length himſelf taken by the Spaniards, who, finding that he was not acting under the Queen's commiſſion, condemned him and his men to death as pirates. Thus ended the firſt exploit of the Engliſh in the South Sea. That planned and conducted by Drake terminated in a manner highly creditable to the Commander, and reflects honour to our country. On his return, as a teſtimony of reſpect and eſteem for his ſervices, Queen Elizabeth dined on board his ſhip at Deptford, and conferred on him the honour of knighthood.

With

With this voyage, Captain Burney cloſes the firſt part of his Chronological Hiſtory of the Diſcoveries in the South Sea: much remains, therefore, to be done in order to accompliſh his plan, and we doubt not that he will meet with encouragement from the public to enable him to proceed. In this country every reſpectable work connected with navigation, and maritime hiſtory, will find a ready patronage; the author before us by his induſtry merits a liberal ſupport; few could be found who in all reſpects can be ſuppoſed ſo well qualified as himſelf for the undertaking; having traverſed the ocean concerning which he writes, he is able duly to eſtimate the value of the labours of thoſe who went before him in the ſame tract.

The laſt chapter in this volume conſiſts of an account of the charts which accompany it, with obſervations on the geography of the ſixteenth century. An appendix is added, containing remarks on the projection of charts, and particularly on the degree of curvature proper to be given to the parallels of latitude. Theſe remarks will be read with intereſt by thoſe who are deſirous of knowing the *rationale* of the buſineſs, and who wiſh for real information with regard to the principles of projection made uſe of in the maps before them.

ART. CLXXXIII. *The Hiſtory of the Rebellion in the Year* 1745. *By John Home, Eſq.*

(Concluded from page 102.*)*

AFTER the battle of Preſtonpans, conſiderable numbers joined the inſurgents; and the friends of government apprehended that Charles would immediately march into England. This, indeed, was a movement of obvious policy. In ſuch a hazardous enterpriſe, againſt ſo powerful a government, the only hopes lay in activity and diſpatch, which might take advantage of the temporary alarm, and prevent his Majeſty from collecting an adequate force. Delay allowed time to the Royaliſts for reflecting, and eſtimating the amount of the diſaſter, and imputing it to the right cauſe; which in no reſpect affected the general valour and force of his Majeſty's ſoldiers. At Edinburgh, where, for ſome weeks, he was ſtationary, the character of Charles began to appear. The favouring partiality of the Jacobites in a handſome face, a graceful figure, and elegant manners, ſaw the accompliſhed prince worthy of ſuch a line of anceſtors; and compared him to Robert Bruce, who in ſuch untoward circumſtances had fought the throne of his anceſtors, and they augured to Charles ſimilar ſucceſs. The Whigs ſeverely

severely scrutinizing, perceived that his countenance, though comely, neither exhibited energy nor intelligence; and that the vaunted accomplishments were the frivolous attainments of the courtier, and not the qualifications of the soldier, or the statesman. It was also discovered that he was guided by the opinions of others, as is usual with men who are at once good-natured and weak. The Whigs of Edinburgh, as they came to know the character of Charles, did not apprehend much danger to the establishment from his personal exertions; and were the more confirmed in their opinion, from his loss of time in not improving his victory. It was the beginning of November before the rebels marched to England. On the 13th they besieged the city of Carlisle, and took it in a day. General Wade was posted at Newcastle to meet the rebels, who were expected to take the eastern road. Hearing they had followed a different route, he marched across the country, to cover Carlisle; but arriving at Hexham, he learned that it had surrendered. He therefore returned to his former position. The time that elapsed from the battle of Preston to the march into England, enabled his Majesty to recall his forces from Flanders, and to make a great addition to those at home. Private bodies and individuals united their efforts, both of money and men; and three large armies were now on foot, and constantly receiving augmentations: one was commanded by Wade in the north; a second, in the heart of the kingdom, was under the Duke of Cumberland; and the third was stationed in Middlesex and Hertfordshire, to cover the metropolis; and if the rebels should approach, this was to be commanded by the venerable old King in person. In the rebel army great dissentions prevailed, which appeared to have been owing to personal competition between Drummond (called Duke) of Perth, and Lord George Murray. At length the Duke of Perth gave way, and Murray was nominated the only Lieutenant-General. A council of war being called, it was deliberated how they should next proceed. Some objected to farther progress in England, as there appeared to be no hopes of an insurrection. Charles, however, persisted in his resolution of marching to London; and Lord George Murray consented; although it appears he consented as to an experiment, rather than with hopes of success. On the 21st of November they began their march from Carlisle; and, advancing in different divisions, reached Manchester on the 29th. There, about three hundred of the common people joined the rebel army; and these, except a few individuals, were the only Englishmen who seconded the Pretender. The Duke of Cumberland with his army was now in Staffordshire, having made his head-quarters at Newcastle-under-Line, about

about 149 miles from London. Leaving Mancheſter, the rebels took the left hand road by Derby, which town they reached on the 4th of December; and thereby were 24 miles nearer London than the royal forces. It was naturally conceived by all parties that the Highlanders intended to puſh on to London, without encountering the Duke; and that apprehenſion, as is well known, cauſed very great alarm in the metropolis; and if the rebels had advanced by forced marches, very ſerious danger might have accrued to our eſtabliſhed government, before the Duke could arrive. Fortunately, however, the attempt was not made. Inſtead of advancing, the rebel leaders halted ſeveral days at Derby, which time was chiefly ſpent in contentions about the expediency of proceeding; and here the young adventurer ſhewed himſelf deſtitute of that firmneſs and ſelf-poſſeſſion, without which no head of an arduous enterpriſe can ever expect to ſucceed. He was ſtill eagerly anxious to advance to London, and obtain a throne, or periſh in the attempt. Without this determination indeed the undertaking would have been ſilly, as well as mad; but reſolved as he was, Charles gave way to Lord George Murray, who, it ſeems, had changed the opinion he had adopted at Carliſle, and propoſed to retreat to Scotland. As this is one of the moſt important epochs of the hiſtory, we regret that the author has not rendered it the ſubject of more elaborate diſquiſition. The facts, as uſual, he ſtates perſpicuouſly and ſtrongly; he alſo ſtates the different, and indeed oppoſite, accounts given by Murray himſelf; and by Hay, Secretary to Charles. According to Lord George, "they had advanced ſo far, expecting an invaſion from France, or an inſurrection in England, neither of which had happened; and it would be an exceſs of temerity to advance any farther againſt three armies collected to oppoſe them, each of which was greatly ſuperior in number to the Highland army." In this reaſoning of Murray, the main argument continued the ſame as when at Carliſle he had propoſed to advance. There were then three armies of his Majeſty's troops, and it certainly never could have been the purpoſe of the Highlanders to encounter the three armies; their object muſt have been to reach London by ſurpriſe. At Macclesfield, Lord George was very eager for giving the Duke of Cumberland the ſlip, and haſtening before him to the metropolis. At Derby, they were forty miles nearer their object than at Macclesfield, and there having paſſed the Royal army, they had effected a great part of their project. At Derby, whether they advanced or retreated, they were equally rebels; and if defeated, equally expoſed to the capital puniſhment of the law. But if they advanced, victory might have accompliſhed

pliſhed their object; whereas, if they retreated, victory over their purſuers would not enable them to return with the ſame advantage, nor even enſure their ſafety. If Lord George Murray had commanded the troops of one independent ſtate invading the territories of another, a retreat in ſuch circumſtances would have been wiſe, as the danger to be encountered by advancing was great, and retreat might be ſafe. But to rebels, whoſe lives are forfeited by the laws of their country, the only ſafety is in the moſt adventurous, and even deſperate, counſels, unleſs they mean to ſubmit. From our author, and every other perſon converſant in the ſubject, it is clear that Charles was averſe from the retreat; and in agreeing to a meaſure ſo contrary to his own opinion, and his object, he proved himſelf totally unfit for attaining that object. Charles, it appears, was perſonally brave, humane, and kind, without genius or energy. Concerning the motives of Lord George Murray, our author is very properly ſilent. An hiſtorian ought to unfold motives, whether good or bad, if they can be PROVED from teſtimony, or demonſtrated from conduct; but where the queſtion may be between a judgment of the head, and a purpoſe of the heart, he is uncandid if he impute to corruption, or treachery, on conjecture, what may be owing merely to errors. Our hiſtorian is candid in this, as in every part of his narrative.

Charles was inconſolable at the retreat; and from this time he very juſtly regarded the enterpriſe as having totally miſcarried. "He behaved," ſays our author, "for ſome time, as if he no longer thought himſelf Commander of the army. In the march forward, he had always been firſt up in the morning, had the men in motion before break of day, and uſually marched on foot with them: but in the retreat, though the reſt of the army were on their march, and the rear could not move without him, he made them wait a long time; and, when he came out, mounted his horſe, rode ſtraight on, and got to his quarters with the van."—According to Mr. Hay, as quoted in the appendix, "when they began their march back, very few knew that they *were* marching back. Many perſons of diſtinction did not know it; amongſt others, Lord Nairne. When the men, who had marched in the grey of the morning, began to know by the day-light, from the marks they had taken of the road, that they were going back, there was an univerſal lamentation among them. Charles, who had marched a-foot, at the head of the men, all the way, was obliged to get on horſeback, for he could not walk, and could hardly ſtand, as was always the caſe with him when he was cruelly uſed. After they had marched back as far as Mancheſter, and had loſt the advantage gained over the Duke's army, they heard nothing

thing of the army from Scotland, and found themſelves obliged to go further north in queſt of them. When they came to Leek, Charles ſaid, "He found they intended to carry him back to Scotland."

The inactive reſidence of Charles at Edinburgh, and his precipitate retreat from England, appear to be the pivots on which his enterpriſe turned. From this time there could be no expectations entertained of his ſucceſs; and there muſt be little of that intereſt which ariſes in a ſtory from viciſſitudes, and the alternation of hopes and fears; nevertheleſs, the narrative continues warmly to engage the reader. Having reconducted the adventurers to the frontiers of Scotland, our author takes a view of the ſtate of the North while the Highlanders were in England. Charles expected that great re-inforcements were to meet him in Scotland, and a conſiderable number of men were actually raiſed for his ſervice. At the end of December theſe amounted to four thouſand men. On the other hand, loyal and patriotic chieftains, and other gentlemen, levied large bodies for the ſervice of their King and country. The rebel army, now more numerous than ever, defeated General Hawley at Falkirk. But this victory afforded them no material advantage. The Duke of Cumberland entered Scotland, and the Highlanders found it neceſſary to retreat to the North. The Duke purſued them as far as Aberdeen, and there he halted; and whilſt he occupied that poſition, he ſent forward detachments to ſecure his route to the North. Meanwhile, a war of poſts was carried on in different parts of the Highlands; eſpecially among the Grampians. The head-quarters of the rebels, from February to April, were at Inverneſs. The ſeaſon was uncommonly ſevere, even ſo late as the month of March; but in the beginning of April, the froſt being ſomewhat relaxed, the Duke ſet out in queſt of the rebels. On the 13th, the Royaliſts reached Nairne, where the Duke halted, that he might reconnoitre the Highlanders, who, having left Inverneſs, had advanced to Culloden, about thirteen miles from Nairne. Many of the troops of Charles were abſent in detachments, and he had ſcarcely any cavalry and artillery. Nevertheleſs, both he and his adherents were eager to encounter the Royaliſts; and with that view, inſtead of awaiting them in a ſtrong poſt, marched into the plain. Lord George Murray projected a night attack on the 15th, and his plan appears to have been ably concerted; but by ſome fatal miſapprehenſion, the firſt and ſecond diviſion were at ſuch a diſtance from each other, that the van would not venture an onſet; and day broke on the 16th, before the rear came near enough for their ſupport. Lord George

ſaw

ſaw that his project of a ſurpriſe was impracticable, and therefore propoſed to retreat. Other officers admitted, that the Highlanders could not completely ſurpriſe their antagoniſts, but contended that at that early hour in the morning they might find them leſs prepared than when they ſhould march with the intention of offering battle. Lord George, however, perſiſted that they ſhould retreat; and Charles, quite contrary to his own opinion, complied. They returned to Culloden fatigued, and almoſt famiſhed; their proviſions on the day before having been reduced to one biſcuit each man. Some of them went to ſleep; and others ſlipped away to Inverneſs, in queſt of food. That morning, April 16th, the Duke's army marched towards Culloden. The rebels finding him approach, determined, reduced as they were, to meet him, took their ground, and formed. The Duke of Cumberland marſhalled his men in two lines of foot, with cavalry on each flank, and a ſtrong body of reſerve. Our author details the evolutions and events of the battle, with circumſtantial accuracy. The Highlanders behaved with their uſual valour, but with an evident want of deſign and concert. The Royaliſts acted as became Britons fighting for their King and country. Skill and combination were added to valour, and ſupported by ſuperior numbers. The reſult was ſuch as muſt have been expected. The Highlanders received a deciſive defeat. Conſiderable numbers were ſlain and taken priſoners, and the reſt diſperſed. Several chieftains were coming to join Charles with re-inforcements, when they were met by flying Highlanders, and convinced the cauſe was hopeleſs. Among theſe was young Frazer, ſon and heir of the celebrated Lord Lovat, who had been a moſt ſtrenuous partizan of Charles, without actively taking a part in hoſtilities himſelf.

The Duke of Cumberland, having cruſhed open rebellion, ſent parties through the country in purſuit of ſkulking rebels, and of their leader Charles. Thirty thouſand pounds many months before had been offered to any one that ſhould bring Charles Edward Stuart, either dead or alive, to his Majeſty's officers. The offer was now repeated; but among theſe poor and indigent peaſants not one was found who would raiſe himſelf to riches, by betraying confidence, and violating what he conceived to be the duty of loyalty. Nay, even perſons attached to government omitted opportunities of capturing this unfortunate youth, when humbled and diſtreſſed. The circumſtances of the eſcape of Charles are as well known as any favourite tale of romance, and have farther been conſecrated to immortality by the pen of Johnſon. But by no writer are his adventures told in a more ſimple, ſtriking, and impreſſive manner,

manner, than by Mr. Home. After ſpending, in various diſguiſes, near five months in the Weſtern Highlands, and iſlands, and undergoing the greateſt hardſhips, he at length found a ſhip which carried him to Morlaix in Brittany, where he landed on the 29th of September; and with his arrival in France the hiſtory concludes.

Among the moſt imminent dangers which Charles eſcaped, that which is narrated in the following paſſage we ſhall quote as a ſpecimen of our author's manner of telling an intereſting ſtory:

"As the country on both ſides of Lochnevis had been the cradle of the rebellion, a great many detachments of the King's troops were ſent there after the battle of Culloden: the officers who commanded theſe troops, having received notice that Charles had landed at Lochnevis, formed a line of poſts from Lochuren to Lochnevis, and from that to Lochſhiel, to ſhut him in, being certain that he was on one or other of the promontories to the weſt of that line. Charles having made his way from Lochnevis to Borradale, ſent one * of Macdonald's ſons for Macdonald of Glenaladale, to deſire that he would come to him as ſoon as he could. Glenaladale came immediately; and brought with him another Macdonald, who had been an officer in the French ſervice, and had come over to Scotland after the rebellion broke out. The two Macdonalds conſulting with Charles, reſolved to attempt bringing him through the line of poſts. Along this line, centinels were placed ſo near one another, in the day time, that nobody could paſs without being ſeen: and when it began to grow dark, fires were lighted at every poſt, and the centinels croſſed continually from one fire to another, ſo that there was a time when, both their backs being turned, a perſon might paſs unſeen. Between two of theſe fires there was a ſmall brook, which had worn a channel among the rocks. Up the channel of this brook Charles and the two Macdonalds crept; and watching their opportunity, paſſed between the centinels. After having croſſed the line of poſts, Glenaladale, thinking the Weſt Highlands a very unſafe place for Charles, reſolved to conduct him to the Roſs-ſhire Highlands, amongſt thoſe Mackenzies who had remained loyal, and therefore were not viſited with troops. Theſe Mackenzies Glenaladale thought would not betray Charles; and the perſon whom he had pitched upon to confide in was Sir Alexander Mackenzie of Coul. Charles and his attendants ſetting out for Roſsſhire on foot, ſuffered greatly in their journey from want of proviſions; and when they came to the Braes of Kintail, inhabited by the Macraws, a barbarous people, among whom there are but few gentlemen, neceſſity obliged them to call at the houſe of one Chriſtopher Macraw. Glenaladale, leaving Charles, and the French officer at ſome diſtance, went to Macraw's houſe, and told him that he

"* Borradale is about twelve miles from Lochnevis."

he and two of his friends were like to periſh for want of food; and deſired him to furniſh them with ſome victuals, for which they would pay. Macraw inſiſted upon knowing who his two friends were, which Glenaladale ſeemed unwilling to tell. Macraw ſtill inſiſted: and Glenaladale told him at laſt, that it was young Clan Ronald, and a relation of his. Notwithſtanding the conſequence of the perſons, Macraw, though rich for an ordinary Highlander, made Glenaladale pay very dear for ſome proviſions he gave him. Having received the money, he grew better humoured; and deſired Glenaladale and the other two to paſs the night in his houſe, which they did. In the courſe of the converſation they talked of the times, and Macraw exclaimed againſt the Highlanders who had taken arms with Charles; and ſaid, that they and thoſe who ſtill protected him were fools and madmen; that they ought to deliver themſelves and their country from diſtreſs, by giving him up, and taking the reward which government had offered. That night, a Macdonald who had been in the rebel army came to Macraw's houſe; at firſt ſight he knew Charles, and took an opportunity of warning Glenaladale to take care that Chriſtopher ſhould not diſcover the quality of his gueſt." p. 251—253.

Following the advice, our adventurer eſcaped the danger. His protection from Miſs Flora Macdonald is alſo told with great impreſſiveneſs; and indeed while Mr. Home exhibits the rebellion with the ſentiments and views of a loyal and patriotic Briton, he, on the other hand, intereſts the reader in the deſtiny of the vanquiſhed Charles: And though every friend of our conſtitution muſt rejoice in the overthrow of rebellion; without any diminution of loyalty and patriotiſm, every man of ſenſibility muſt rejoice at the eſcape of Charles, as painted by Mr. Home.

From the outline which we have now given for the uſe of thoſe readers who have not peruſed the work, it may be ſeen that this is a hiſtory of conſiderable value; but no ſketch can convey an adequate idea of its merits, which will be fully eſtimated only by a peruſal of the production itſelf. The performance before us, beyond all queſtion, poſſeſſes the fundamental quality of hiſtory,—authenticity. Every fact that is recorded is delivered either from the perſonal obſervation of the author, the communication of actors, or letters official or confidential from actors. To authenticity the hiſtorian joins impartiality. He is a moderate Conſtitutional Whig, and makes full allowance for the ſentiments and conduct of perſons who, in different circumſtances, felt and acted differently. Candour is a great friend to authenticity and impartiality. This is a quality evinced in every page of Mr. Home's account. Perhaps, indeed, he is too ſparing of cenſure; and many will think that the conduct of certain leaders on both ſides required

required a ſeverity of animadverſion which they do not here experience. On the other hand, it muſt be allowed, that if he do not paſs judgement himſelf, he affords to his readers the facts and documents which enable them to paſs judgement. An hiſtorian may be conſidered either ſimply as a witneſs delivering teſtimony, or as both a witneſs delivering teſtimony, and a judge ſumming up the evidence that has been adduced. In the former of theſe lights Mr. Home chiefly appears; but the information which he conveys is clear, ſatisfactory, important, and intereſting. He occaſionally preſents juſt and able reflections; and ſhews he can philoſophize, though he generally confines himſelf to narration and deſcription, the peculiar provinces of an hiſtorian. The arrangement is extremely perſpicuous; every part ſeems ſo diſpoſed as beſt to ſuit its relation to other parts, and to the whole. The language poſſeſſes the eſſentials of a good ſtyle; it clearly conveys, and ſtrongly impreſſes the writer's meaning. But impartiality obliges us to acknowledge that it is frequently careleſs; and not without Scottiſh idioms. From the taſte of Mr. Home the world might expect more finiſhed elegance of compoſition; and from his poetical genius, more of the decoration of rhetorical figures. Theſe remarks, however, on the language, we confeſs did not occur to us till we reviſed the publication with a view to criticiſm. At the firſt reading we were ſo much attracted by the ſtory itſelf, that we paid little regard to the expreſſion.

Having fairly and impartially analyſed this work, ſtated its excellencies, and admitted its defects, we ſhall conclude with recommending it to our readers as a pleaſing and valuable acceſſion to hiſtorical literature, on a ſubject of high intereſt and importance to theſe realms.

ART. CLXXXIV. *Tranſactions of the Society inſtituted at London for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce; with the Premiums offered in the Year* 1803. Vol. XXI. 8vo. pp. 576. price 10 s. 6 d. Robſon, London. 1803.

IT is now fifty years ſince this Society was inſtituted. Its worthy founder, Mr. WILLIAM SHIPLEY, lived to witneſs forty-eight anniverſaries. Had he ſurvived a few months longer, it was the intention of the acting members of that body to have preſented him, at the cloſe of half a century, with ſome memorial of their reſpect and eſteem; to which his public ſpirit had the ſtrongeſt claims.

The volume before us, like the others which have preceded it, is made up of papers written by different perſons, on diffe-

rent ſubjects. Theſe, in general, are intereſting to the public, inaſmuch as they either treat of inventions new in themſelves, or of improvements which may be beneficial in the uſeful arts of life. The tranſactions of this Society include whatever relates to Agriculture, Chemiſtry, and Manufactures.

The firſt paper in the volume was preſented to the Society by the Earl of Fife; in which we have an account of his great and important agricultural improvements in North Britain, comprehending not only extenſive plantations of foreſt trees, and the draining of moraſſes, but including alſo his general endeavours to ſettle comfortably in farms ſuch of his tenants as have, by their induſtry and exertions, rendered themſelves deſerving of his favour. From this communication, we ſhall lay before our readers an extract, which will evince the great attention ſhown by his Lordſhip to the intereſts of his country, and the difficulties with which, occaſionally, he has to ſtruggle:

"I keep up the five houſes ſucceſſively mentioned in this letter; to all of which I have made large additional buildings: thus numerous labourers and artificers are employed. They all lie at the diſtance of from twelve to twenty-five miles from Duff-houſe, except Mar Lodge, which is about one hundred miles diſtant. The roads being all good, I frequently go to thoſe different places to inſpect the works carrying on, ſee how my plantations are kept, and give directions for extending them. I have planted altogether between eleven and twelve thouſand acres. The thinnings of the plantations are regularly carried on, as ſtated in my former letters to the Society. They are now of much more value. Laſt year they were ſold for 1000*l.*; and every ſucceeding year they will be of much more value: no trees, however, are cut, but for the benefit of thoſe they ſtand too near. A ſilver fir, a larch, and a Platoniſt, were planted in the Duff-houſe Park, near the river, in the year 1758. The larch, which ſtood in the middle, was overcome by its two powerful neighbours, and was in a declining ſtate. I then deſired it might be cut down, but not ſold. My carpenter cut it into deals that meaſured ten feet in length, and one foot ten inches in breadth, and made out of it a dining-table large enough for fourteen people, and two very good breakfaſt-tables: it is little inferior in appearance to mahogany.

"The ſilver fir meaſures eighteen inches from the root, is ſeven feet ten inches in circumference, and its height is ſixty-five feet. The Platoniſt, at the ſame diſtance from the root, meaſures ſeven feet three inches in circumference; and ſix feet above, ſix feet five inches. Its height is fifty-five feet.

"It would be well if any method could be deviſed to prevent men who have no taſte for ſuch improvements, or ſenſe of their utility to the country, from cutting down woods prematurely; ſuch as was the caſe on the death of the late Duke of Queenſberry, when plantations

plantations of not more than twenty years ſtanding were cut down, like fields of unripe corn.

" The Duke of Richmond, I underſtand, has numbered many trees of a certain ſize, and very properly entailed them under proper regulations, to prevent uſe.

" If this, or ſome ſuch method, was generally adopted, in a few years many thouſands might be kept in this country, which are annually expended on foreign wood.

" Fife-houſe, Whitehall, is a crown leaſe. I have made embankments, which, with the buildings, have coſt me many thouſand pounds. The firſt embankment was made about five years after my entry on the leaſe, and the other twelve years after; they were made at a great expence. All the trees and ſhrubs planted in theſe embankments, as alſo the ſtones, were brought from my eſtates in Scotland. The workmen, too, were my tenants; and they have executed the whole in ſo maſterly a ſtyle as does them the higheſt credit. Some of the elms planted in the firſt embankment meaſure five feet four inches in girth, and above fifty feet in height. At the time I carried on theſe very expenſive works, I conſidered myſelf as holding a very certain tenure from my royal landlord, the crown.

" I combated, at great expence and trouble, the right of my royal landlord with the city of London. Confident I might renew my leaſe when I was inclined, on paying the uſual fine, and aſſured of this likewiſe by the treaſury, I delayed till my leaſe was half run before I demanded a renewal. After all this expenditure, and the greateſt trouble at the different offices, I have been put off from time to time, and find that the tenants of the crown are in a more dependent ſituation than thoſe of any ſubject or corporation."

For this communication, the Society preſented the writer with their gold medal. To Lord Newark was alſo given a gold medal for his plantations of oaks.—The next paper is from Mr. Shirreff of Haddington, North Britain. It contains not only an account of a very extenſive plantation of oſiers, but lays down rules for the whole proceſs, by which any perſon may employ his land to the ſame advantage. We refer our readers to this and the following communication, " On the method of preſerving turnips during the winter," by the Rev. Mr. Munnings, as very important to the intereſts of the landholder and farmer. To theſe gentlemen, and to Mr. Knapping, for having gained about 230 acres of land from the ſea, in the iſland of Foulneſs in Eſſex, the Society alſo adjudged their gold medals.

Among the many topics diſcuſſed in this volume, we notice ſome valuable communications on the ſubject of the *dry rot* in timber. In the year 1794, the Society publiſhed the method adopted by Mr. Batſon to prevent this evil, which was, by charring the ends of the timbers, taking away all the infected

earth, and filling the vacant ſpace with anchor-ſmith's aſhes, or aſhes from a foundry, before the flooring boards were laid. An experiment was fairly made on this plan, and at the end of fifteen years, a minute examination of the boards and timbers ſo laid, has ſhewn its efficacy not only in preventing the dry rot, but in curing it in a place where it had formerly made conſiderable depredations. In addition to this, the Society have now laid before the public ſome other facts on the ſame ſubject.

According to Mr. Johnſon of Ipſwich, the dry rot is occaſioned by the operation of a plant whoſe leaf reſembles that of a vine; to prevent the progreſs of which, he propoſes to cover the ground with bricks laid in mortar; in other words, in laying a wooden floor upon the ground, he recommends the earth to be taken away for a foot in breadth, and four inches in depth, all round the walls, and then to place the ends of the joiſts in mortar, covering them with tiles preſſed under the floor and wainſcot, quite to the outward wall. In confirmation of Mr. Johnſon's theory, we are told that the plant occaſioning the dry rot has no adheſive powers but in contact with wood;—that it is of the creeping kind, and cannot riſe two inches; ſo that wood, in all caſes, muſt be in contact with the earth to ſupport it. Hence he concludes, that

"Nothing is more eaſy than to prevent the damage from the plant. I am poſitive that a tile laid cloſe along the walls round the room would prevent the growth of the plant, even without mortar; and perhaps it is only neceſſary where the walls are next the air.

"Charring the ends of the joiſts for a few inches, and charring the ſide of the wainſcot at the bottom next to the wall, would be ſufficient; for the plant cannot adhere to any thing but wood, and that poſſeſſed of its natural juices to a certain degree; ſo that I queſtion if old dry oak would receive it."

It is ſtated by Mr. Bramley of Leeds, in a letter to this Society, that from long experience he is convinced the *dry rot* is occaſioned by the moiſture left in the timber when uſed for the purpoſes of building; and that its prevention would be in uſing timber that is felled at a proper ſeaſon, or when the ſap is not in circulation, and after it has been well dried and ſeaſoned. He farther adds, "I am of opinion that the fungus which pervades decaying wood is not the firſt cauſe, but an attendant on the peculiar ſtate to which wood has been reduced by prior cauſes. The diſſeminated ſeeds, finding a proper bed, or nidus, like the muſhroom, toad-ſtool, &c. fix their abode, and pervade the whole ſubſtance; thus accelerating the general law of Providence, which tends to make all matter re-productive."

In

In addition to theſe communications, the Society has been informed, that mortar made of lime from burnt chalk is much more deſtructive to timber than ſtone lime, or that burnt from lime-ſtone. Chalk lime attracts moiſture, and, communicating it to any timber which it touches, occaſions its decay.

Sea-ſand is alſo prejudicial, if made into mortar, from a ſimilar quality of attracting moiſture from the atmoſphere: this may, in ſome degree, be corrected by waſhing the ſand well in freſh water, where good ſand cannot be procured.

Mortar, where any is required to be in contact with timber, may be made from a mixture of ſtone lime freſh burnt, and river ſand, with which a very ſmall quantity of common brown, or yellow iron ochre, is to be incorporated.

There are, in the volume before us, ten papers which relate to Mechanics. Of theſe, we notice Dr. Winterbottom's deſcription of a machine for clearing turnpike-roads from mud; becauſe, if it anſwer the encomiums paſſed upon it by the inventor, it will be found of great practical uſe, and will ſave much labour and expence to the community, ſince it is confidently aſſerted that more work can be performed by a ſingle machine (which requires the aid of two men and four horſes) than by 120 men; of courſe, calculating the labour of each man at 2*s.* per day, and there will be a ſaving of £10. 15*s.* out of £12. The price of the machine will not exceed ten pounds.

This Society have alſo given bounties to Mr. William Bowler for a ſcrew-preſs with an expanding power, adapted to the purpoſe of preſſing bodies in general, but particularly cheeſes and hops; and for a method of preventing accidents to horſes and carriages, in going down hills, by a gripe or claſp acting on the naves of the wheels of the carriage. By this invention, if it anſwer the deſcription before us, a cart may be ſtopped in an inſtant in going down the ſteepeſt hill with a load, by the carter only preſſing his hand upon a lever; and a coachman, whilſt ſitting on his box, may confine or releaſe the wheels of his carriage at pleaſure, and prevent accidents in deſcending hills, or in managing reſtive horſes.

From the ſhort account which we have given of the volume now under review, the public will be able to appreciate its merits, and to eſtimate the value of the labours of that indefatigable body from whom it proceeds. It will not be doubted that the Society is one of the moſt uſeful aſſociations that exiſt in the kingdom: it is their object to promote the Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce of the country, by giving rewards for all ſuch uſeful inventions, diſcoveries, and improvements, as tend to that purpoſe. In purſuance of this plan,

the Society have already expended nearly fifty thouſand pounds, advanced chiefly by the voluntary ſubſcriptions of their members. We cannot but wiſh ſucceſs to exertions ſo laudable and diſintereſted; and we feel no heſitation in predicting, that as long as the premiums are adjudged with impartiality, and every man, who lays claim to their bounty, is rewarded according to his merit, the Society muſt enjoy a large ſhare of public patronage.

ART. CLXXXV. *Elements of Science and Art; being a familiar Introduction to Natural Philoſophy and Chemiſtry: together with their Application to a Variety of elegant and uſeful Arts. By John Imiſon.* A new Edition, conſiderably enlarged, and adapted to the improved State of Science. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 1260. Price 1 *l.* 5 *s.* Cadell and Davies, London. 1804.

MR. Imiſon's "SCHOOL OF ARTS" has long been a popular work in this country; and to the various editions of it there have been conſiderable improvements made, according to the taſte and talents of the ſeveral editors. When we firſt took up the work before us, it was our intention to have compared it with the impreſſions that have preceded it; but, upon more mature conſideration, we have thought it better to treat it as a new work, by laying before our readers a connected view of its contents; a method which will enable every one to judge how far, in its preſent ſtate, it is adapted to his wants, and what portion of inſtruction may be expected from it.

We ſhall be juſtified in conſidering the ſubject in this way, becauſe the preſent editor has thought proper to give his work a new, and, upon the whole, a more appropriate title; and has ſhown no ſmall degree of judgment, and general reading in natural philoſophy, by adapting this compendium to the preſent ſtate of ſcience. It may farther be obſerved, that treatiſes introductory to philoſophical knowledge are more uſually wanted by young perſons commencing their ſtudies, than by thoſe who have made conſiderable progreſs in learning; for theſe, then, a review of ſuch a work as that before us ſhould be written.

We are informed, "that, in preparing the preſent edition, every article has been carefully reviſed, and the lateſt diſcoveries and improvements in each branch have been introduced, and a more ſcientific arrangement of the whole has been adopted." This is a modeſt and juſt deſcription of the volumes which we are about briefly to analyſe.

The

The firſt volume may very properly be termed an introduction to Natural and Experimental Philoſophy: it contains the elementary principles well defined, and illuſtrated by facts, of Mechanics, Pneumatics, Hydroſtatics, Hydraulics, Optics, Electricity, Galvaniſm, Magnetiſm, and Aſtronomy.

The only thing that we object to in this arrangement is, that Aſtronomy would have come more naturally after Optics: the other ſubjects are comparatively modern parts of ſcience. Galvaniſm has not been numbered among the branches of experimental philoſophy more than twelve or fifteen years; and the knowledge of Electricity was exceedingly limited till within the laſt half century. It is but little more than fifty years that Franklin proved that lightning and electricity were the ſame fluid; ſince which, the ſcience has made a great and rapid progreſs; at preſent indeed it ſeems to be at a ſtand, unleſs galvaniſm be deemed a modification of electricity; to which, philoſophers in all parts of the civilized world are paying conſiderable attention.

We could have wiſhed alſo that the treatiſe of Practical Geometry, which is now, for the firſt time, among the additions to the ſecond volume, had been introductory to the whole work, becauſe the ſtudent will more eaſily comprehend the principles of natural philoſophy, by being previouſly acquainted with the definitions and principal problems in geometry.

In treating of the different parts of natural philoſophy, much novelty will not be expected; all that can be deſired is, that no material fact ſhould be omitted; that the explanations ſhould be eaſy of apprehenſion, the illuſtrations familiar, and the application of the ſcience to the wants of life be ſhewn in a perſpicuous manner. Theſe ought to be the characteriſtics of every elementary work in ſcience, and we ſhall not hazard our reputation in aſſerting, that the new edition of Imiſon's School of Arts, now denominated the "Elements of Science and Art," is thus diſtinguiſhed. As illuſtrative of our opinion, we may take the article Mechanics.

Matter is firſt defined, and its properties enumerated; then the nature of attraction and repulſion is deſcribed; which is ſucceeded by an account of central forces, and the centre of gravity. The mechanical powers are deſcribed ſeparately, and their application ſhown to compound engines, mill-work, clock-work, pendulums, wheel-carriages, &c. From each of theſe we might ſelect parts which would prove that the editor is well verſed in ſubjects of this kind, and that he has taken pains to ſimplify the firſt principles of knowledge; but we ſhall

lay before the reader a part of what he has said, "on the application of men and horses as moving powers in machinery."

"A horse draws with the greatest advantage, when the line of draught is not level with his breast, but inclines upwards, making a small angle with the horizontal plane.

"A horse drawing a weight over a single pulley can draw 200lbs. for eight hours a day, and walking at the rate of two miles and a half in an hour, which is about three feet and a half in a second; and if the same horse be made to draw 240 lbs. he can work but six hours a day, and cannot go quite so fast. To this may be referred the working of horses in all sorts of mills and water-works.

"When a horse draws in a mill, or gin of any kind, great care should be taken that the horse-walk, or circle in which he moves, be large enough in diameter, otherwise the horse cannot exert all his strength; for, in a small circle, the tangent (in which the horse draws) deviates more from the circle in which the horse is obliged to go, than in a larger circle. The horse-walk should not be less than forty feet in diameter. In a walk of nineteen feet diameter, it has been calculated that a horse loses two fifths of his strength.

"The worst way of applying the force of a horse, is to make him carry or draw up hill; for if the hill be steep, three men will do more than a horse; each man, loaded with 100 lbs. will move up faster than a horse that is loaded with 300 lbs.: this is owing to the position of the parts of a man's body, which are better adapted for climbing than those of a horse.

"As a horse, from the structure of his body, can exert most strength in drawing almost horizontally in a straight line, a man exerts the least strength that way: as for example, if a man, weighing 140 lbs., walking by a river or canal side, draws along a boat or barge, by means of a rope coming over his shoulders, or otherwise fastened to his body, he cannot draw above 27 lbs., or about $\frac{1}{5}\frac{1}{7}$th of what a horse can draw in that case. Five men are about equal in strength to one horse, and can with the same ease push round the horizontal beam in a forty-foot walk; but three of the same men will push round a beam in a nineteen-foot walk, which a horse (otherwise equal to five men) can but draw round.

"Let us suppose a man of moderate strength to weigh 140 lbs.; he may, in the four principal parts of pushing and pulling, in the whole circumference of motion, exert the following forces; viz. in the strongest point, a force equal to 160 lbs.; in the weakest, a force equal to 27 lbs.; in the next strong point, 130 lbs.; and in the last or second weak point, 30 lbs. Let us add all these forces together, which will make 347 lbs.; which divide by 4, and we shall have $84\frac{3}{4}$ lbs. for the weight that a man might lift by a winch, if he could exert his whole force continually, without stopping to take breath; but as that cannot be, the weight must return, and overpower him at the first weak point; especially when the handle moves slowly, as it must, if a man would exert his whole strength all round. Besides, for raising such a weight, we must suppose the man acting always along

along the tangent of the circle of motion, which does not happen in the operation. Then there muſt be a ſufficient velocity given, that the force applied at the ſtrong points may not be ſpent before the hand comes to the weak ones, ſo that it is difficult for a man to continue that irregular motion; and, therefore, when there are no other advantages, the reſiſtance ought to be but 30 lbs. If a fly be added to the windlaſs when the motion is pretty quick, or about four or five feet in a ſecond, a man may, for a little while, act with a force of 80 lbs., and work a whole day with the reſiſtance of 40 lbs.

"If two men work at the end of a roller or windlaſs, as in drawing up coals or ore from a mine, or water from a well, they may more eaſily draw up 70 lbs. (ſtill ſuppoſing the weight and power to have equal velocities) than one man can 30 lbs., provided the elbow of one of the handles be at right angles to the other; for then one man will act at the ſtrongeſt point, when the other acts at the weakeſt point of the revolution; by which means the two men will mutually and ſucceſſively help one another. The common way is, to put on the handles oppoſite to one another, which cannot give the advantage above mentioned, though there is ſome little force gained even in that poſition; becauſe one man pulling while the other thruſts, works at the ſtrongeſt of the two weak points, whilſt the other works at the weakeſt, and ſo helps him a little.

"When a man carries a burden upon his back, he exerts a great force very effectually, many muſcles being at once employed in that operation: the muſcles of his neck, back, and loins, keep his body and head in a proper poſition to ſuſtain the weight; thoſe of his ſhoulders and arms help to keep it in its place; and the muſcles of his legs and thighs raiſe the weight of all the body and burden as the man works along. In this way of working, three men do much more than a horſe, and two often do as much, as may be obſerved in the daily labours of the London porters. A porter will carry 200 lbs., and walk at the rate of three miles an hour: a coal-heaver will carry 250 lbs., but then he does not go far with his load. Chairmen do not act with the ſame muſcles as porters, but as they have ſtraps brought down from their ſhoulders to the poles of the chair, the muſcles of the loins and back are concerned, and likewiſe the extenſors of the legs and thighs, two of them will walk with 300 lbs. at the rate of four miles an hour.

"The laſt and moſt effectual way of a man's exerting his ſtrength, is in rowing a boat: he there acts with more muſcles than in any other operation, and the weight of his body alſo aſſiſts him."

At the end of each article we have an abſtract, in few words, of what has been explained and demonſtrated in the foregoing pages: thus, at the cloſe of Pneumatics, is given the following ſummary, which ſerves not only to refreſh the memory, but enables the learner to aſcertain how much of the ſubject he underſtands, and how far he has digeſted, and made his own, what the author undertakes to teach.

"1. Pneu-

" 1. Pneumatics treats of the *mechanical* properties of air. 2. *Air* is a ſolid and material ſubſtance, as well as water and other fluids. 3. Its *inviſibility* is owing to its *tranſparency*. 4. It poſſeſſes *weight*, *compreſſibility*, and *elaſticity*. 5. Its *weight* is demonſtrated by experiment. 6. Its denſity and elaſticity are in proportion to the force that compreſſes it. 7. The denſity of the atmoſphere diminiſhes upwards; and if altitudes in the air be taken in arithmetical proportion, the variety of the air will be in geometrical progreſſion. 8. Air-pumps are machines for exhauſting the air from veſſels. 9. A vacuum is a ſpace emptied of air. 10. Animals cannot live, nor will a candle burn, in a veſſel exhauſted of air. 11. The air preſſes upon every body immerſed in it, and on every ſide. 12. The riſe of water in *pumps* is owing to the air on one part of the water being removed, which cauſes it to yield and be preſſed upwards in that part. 13. *Suction* is an abſurd notion, now exploded, and accounted for from the preſſure of the air. 14. *Barometers* are inſtruments for meaſuring the weight or preſſure of the atmoſphere. 15. The *torricelian vacuum* is the empty ſpace in the upper part of a barometer tube. 16. Air may be *condenſed*, or made to occupy leſs ſpace. 17. The machines uſed for this purpoſe are called *condenſers*. 18. Air in motion conſtitutes wind. 19. Machines for meaſuring the force of the wind are called wind-gages. 20. *Sound* is a vibratory motion of air. 21. An *echo* is the reflection of ſound."—

Under the article Hydroſtatics, in addition to what is uſually taught, we have an excellent compendium of the riſe and progreſs of the aëroſtatic art, as it has been practiſed here and on the continent; together with a brief hiſtory of all the balloons which have aſcended; to which are added, directions for conſtructing and filling balloons. The nature and principle of the ſteam-engine are very well explained in that part which treats of Hydraulics. The editor aſſumes that Captain Savary, who was the firſt perſon that erected a ſteam-engine, received the hint from the Marquis of Worceſter's Century of Inventions. On a ſubject which has occaſioned ſo much controverſy, it would, perhaps, have been juſtice to the memory of Savary to have acknowledged, that though the probability was, that the Century of Inventions was known to Captain Savary, yet there is certainly no diſtinct evidence to prove that he was indebted to it for his diſcovery of a machine, which, ſince his time, has become, by much, the nobleſt monument of human ingenuity.

The ſcience of Optics is explained in a familiar manner, and the ſtructure of optical inſtruments is rendered perfectly intelligible to very young perſons. In the abſtract at the end of this part of the work, we have obſerved an error. Light is ſaid to move at the rate of 150,000 miles in a ſecond; but its motion

motion is vaſtly ſwifter than this; it approaches much nearer to 200,000 miles in a ſecond of time.

The ſtudent who attends carefully to what is ſaid on the ſubject of Electricity, and who repeats the experiments, will be no mean proficient in that part of ſcience. The hiſtorical part is, perhaps, too ſhort; but in a work of this kind, facts and experiments are of more importance than hiſtorical details, becauſe they give a young perſon a taſte for knowledge, and his curioſity will excite him to every neceſſary enquiry reſpecting the origin and progreſs of it.

Of Galvaniſm, a neat ſummary is given; perhaps as good an abridgment as can, for the preſent, be expected. In treating of Magnetiſm, the editor has placed the diſcovery of the directive property of the magnet at too early a period by near a century; but the facts and theories connected with the ſcience are very well recorded and illuſtrated. The aſtronomical part does not bear a due proportion to the other parts of this volume; it will, however, be a guide to ſome larger abridgments of what is known on the ſubject.

We now come to the ſecond volume, which treats of Chemiſtry, and the various arts dependent upon it; of practical Geometry, and the art of Drawing, including Perſpective, and the mechanical means for copying drawings.

A conſiderable part of the volume is devoted to Chemiſtry, which is explained on the principles laid down by the French philoſophers; but at the cloſe of the article are given both the old and the modern nomenclatures, which is highly proper in this ſtage of the ſcience; though it is probable that in the courſe of a few years every elementary work will be expected to adopt the new nomenclature. Almoſt any part of the Chemiſtry might be tranſcribed as a ſpecimen of the editor's ſkill and reading in the ſcience; but we ſhall ſelect only what is ſaid of *ſoda*, which will exemplify his manner of treating ſubjects in general.

"*Soda*, called alſo the mineral alkali, greatly reſembles potaſh. It is obtained from the aſhes of marine plants.

"We are not better acquainted with the nature of ſoda than with that of potaſh, being equally uncertain whether it previouſly exiſted ready formed in the vegetable, or if it be a combination of certain effects during the proceſs for obtaining it.

"It is more fuſible than potaſh in the fire; in the air it attracts water and carbonic acid, but does not liqueſy like potaſh; it merely effloreſces or falls to powder. It does not adhere ſo ſtrongly to the acids.

"The combination of ſoda or potaſh with oils or fat forms ſoap; the union of potaſh affording *ſoft ſoap*, and the combination of ſoda with the ſame ſubſtances producing *hard ſoap*.

"*Mottled*

" *Mottled ſoap* is made by diſperſing the ley through the ſoap, or by adding to it a quantity of ſolution of ſulphate of iron, which, by its decompoſition, depoſits its oxide through the ſoap, and gives it a variegated appearance. In ſome manufactories, the black oxide of manganeſe is made uſe of for the ſame purpoſe.

" Yellow ſoap is made of tallow and reſin.

" Soap of wool is made by boiling ſhreds of woollen cloth, of any kind, with ley, till the whole has acquired a certain conſiſtence. This kind of ſoap has been made and applied with ſucceſs in France.

" All acids decompoſe ſoap, and ſeparate again its oil: if, therefore, in a clear ſolution of ſoap in water, or ardent ſpirit, an acid be dropped, a turbidneſs takes place, and the oil is ſeparated. But this laſt no longer exhibits its former properties; for inſtance, it diſſolves now totally, or in part, in ſpirits of wine: whence it follows, that the action of the alkali upon the oil has altered its nature.

" All ammoniacal neutral ſalts, and likewiſe the middle, earthy, and metallic ſalts, decompoſe ſoap.

" Various waters obtained from ſprings or from wells, for this reaſon, diſſolve ſoap only imperfectly, or rather, they decompoſe it. Such are called *hard waters*; but, on the contrary, thoſe are called *ſoft waters*, which are free from all ſalts, and diſſolve ſoap completely. On this account, ſpirit of ſoap, or a ſolution of ſoap, is employed as a re-agent, to diſcover whether a water be of the hard or the ſoft kind."

On the ſubject of Drawing, our author ſays; " Not only the outlines of regular objects may be drawn correctly and truly by the rules of geometry and perſpective, but even the forms and intenſity of the various parts of the ſhadows of ſuch objects may be found by certain and invariable rules, founded upon the principles of the reflection of the rays of light; and geometrical drawings ſhould always be ſhadowed according to theſe rules, and not by gueſs, as they generally are." And afterwards, in reference to the whole art of mechanical drawing, he adds;

" This branch of drawing we conſider as a uſeful rather than an ornamental art. It ſhould be learned by every perſon, as anſwering the ſame purpoſes with writing, but in a more perfect manner, in thoſe caſes to which it is applicable. This is particularly ſtriking in deſcriptions of apparatus, and machinery of every kind. Every one muſt be ſenſible how imperfect are all written deſcriptions of thoſe objects; whereas a drawing conveys, at a ſingle glance, more ſatisfactory information than it is poſſible to give by words. In ſhort, we are convinced that it is of the utmoſt importance to ſociety that this ſhould always form a part of common ſchool education, in the ſame manner as writing; and we cannot help recommending it to thoſe who are concerned in the management of our ſeminaries,

ſeminaries, to inſtruct all their pupils, without exception, in the practice of mechanical drawing."

Theſe ſentiments ſo perfectly accord with our own on the ſubject, that we wiſh to give them all the currency in our power. Another part of this work which will illuſtrate the editor's mode of circulating uſeful knowledge, will be found in the rules which he lays down for making *painting tranſparencies:*

"The effect of this kind of painting, which has lately become very faſhionable, though by no means a modern invention, is very pleaſing, if managed with judgment, particularly in fire and moon lights, where brilliancy of light, and ſtrength of ſhade, are ſo very deſireable.

"The very great expence attending the purchaſe of ſtained glaſs, and the riſk of keeping it ſecure from accidents, almoſt preclude the uſe of it in ornamenting rooms; but tranſparencies form a ſubſtitute nearly equal, and at a very ſmall expence. The paper upon which you intend to paint muſt be fixed in a ſtraining frame, in order that you may be able to place it between you and the light, when you ſee occaſion in the progreſs of your work. After tracing-in your deſign, the colours muſt be laid on in the uſual method of ſtained drawings. When the tints are got in, you muſt place your picture againſt the window, on a pane of glaſs, framed for the purpoſe, and begin to ſtrengthen the ſhadows with Indian ink, or with colours, according as the effect requires, laying the colours ſometimes on both ſides of the paper, to give greater force and depth of colour. The laſt touches for giving final ſtrength to ſhadows and forms, are to be done with ivory-black, or lamp-black, prepared with gum-water, as there is no pigment ſo opake, and capable of giving ſtrength and deciſion.

"When the picture is finiſhed, and every part has got its depth of colour and brilliancy, being perfectly dry, you touch very carefully with ſpirits of turpentine on both ſides thoſe parts which are to be the brighteſt, ſuch as the moon and fire, and thoſe parts requiring leſs brightneſs, only on one ſide: then lay on immediately, with a pencil, a varniſh made by diſſolving one ounce of Canada balſam in an equal quantity of ſpirits of turpentine. You muſt be cautious with the varniſh, as it is apt to ſpread. When the varniſh is dry, you tint the flame with red-lead and gamboge, ſlightly tinging the ſmoke next the flame: the moon muſt not be tinted with colour.

"Much depends upon the choice of the ſubject; and none is ſo admirably adapted to this ſpecies of effect as the gloomy gothic ruin, whoſe antique towers and pointed turrets finely contraſt their dark battlements with the pale, yet brilliant moon. The effect of rays paſſing through the ruined windows, half choaked with ivy, or of a fire among the cluſtering pillars, and broken monuments of the choir, round which are figures of banditti, or others whoſe haggard faces catch the reflecting light: theſe afford a peculiarity of effect not

not to be equalled in any other ſpecies of painting. Internal views of cathedrals alſo, where windows of ſtained glaſs are introduced, have a beautiful effect.

"The great point to be attained, is a happy coincidence between the ſubject and the effect produced. The fine light ſhould not be too near the moon, as its glare would tend to injure her pale ſilver light; thoſe parts which are not intereſting, ſhould be kept in an undiſtinguiſhable gloom, and where the principal light is, they ſhould be marked with preciſion. Groups of figures ſhould be well contraſted; thoſe in ſhadow croſſing thoſe that are in the light, by which means the oppoſition of light againſt ſhade is effected."

Having laid before our readers ſuch extracts as will afford them ample opportunities of forming their own judgment of the manner in which this work is executed, it will be ſufficient if we inform them that the uſeful arts which are principally taught in the remainder of the ſecond volume, are; bleaching, dyeing, refining metals, varniſhing, japanning, lacquering, gilding, ſilvering, tinning, ſoldering, moulding and caſting: alſo methods of making cements; of making ink; of removing ſtains; of ſtaining wood; beſides a variety of miſcellaneous articles, which will afford to young perſons of ingenuity a conſiderable portion of uſeful employment and real amuſement.

The young cannot be too early inſtructed in ſcientific purſuits; and when they have inſtruments put into their hands to combine practice with theory, they always feel intereſted in inſtruction. We recommend theſe "Elements" as well adapted to the purpoſe for which they are intended, and we doubt not that they will, in the preſent ſtate, become as popular, and as highly eſteemed by the preſent age, as the "School of Arts" was by the public when firſt it was ſent into the world.

Theſe volumes are illuſtrated by more than thirty plates, engraved by Lowry, whoſe ſkill in the art is too well known to ſtand in need of our commendation.

ART. CLXXXVI. *Lectures on the Acts of the Apoſtles, Explanatory and Practical. By Richard Stack, D.D. late Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin.*

(*Concluded from page* 132.)

THE principal ſubject of our complaint is, that theſe Lectures are compoſed, or rather publiſhed, in too much haſte. They were drawn up in imitation of the Biſhop of London's Lectures, which have not appeared, we believe, much more than two years. *Primâ facie*, then, we ſhould ſay that a volume, illuſtrating ſo important and extenſive a part of the

the New Teſtament, appearing ſo ſoon from the preſs, cannot have had ſufficient time beſtowed upon it for publication. We would not too ſtrictly urge the precept, *Nonum prematur in annum;* but we always feel regret that a work, ſo obviouſly uſeful in its direction, ſhould be deficient in point of execution. Theſe remarks apply principally, as we have had occaſion to obſerve, to the ſtyle. Beſides ſome other marks of negligence, the rythm of Dr. Stack's proſe has been ſo ill attended to, that, in page 187, by omitting a ſingle monoſyllable, we have the five following iambics regularly ſucceeding each other:

> "But, like them, it muſt be reſtrained, and kept
> Subordinate to higher principles,
> The voice of conſcience, and the will of God.
> By theſe the Chriſtian hero muſt be formed,
> And in their ſanction he will reſt content."

We ſhall conclude our account with a few more particular remarks.

P. 14. "Our Lord ſeems to have diſtinguiſhed him (Peter) in a particular manner above the reſt after his reſurrection, as appears from the tender appeal made to him three ſeveral times in almoſt the ſame words: 'Jeſus ſaith to Simon Peter, Simon, loveſt thou me more than theſe?"

This obſervation of Dr. Stack appears to us not at all warranted by the fact to which he has recourſe in ſupport of it. We agree with Mr. Maltby, that the tender appeal here alluded to was evidently a gentle rebuke. See Illuſtrations of the Truth of the Chriſtian Religion, p. 131. not. edit. 2d. An obſervation of Dr. Clarke's alſo, upon Matt. xvi. 23., fully coinciding with our opinion, deſerves to be remembered: "Though this reproof of our Saviour to St. Peter was in reality nothing more but a friendly rebuke, and not a mark of high or laſting diſpleaſure; yet probably the ſeeming ſeverity in the manner of the expreſſion, might by the Divine Wiſdom be intended with a particular view, that it might be left upon record as a guard againſt that extravagant opinion, which God foreknew future ages would entertain, of St. Peter's perſonal authority." Serm. 138. Dublin edit. 1738.

We extremely approve the pains Dr. S. has taken to lower his language to the comprehenſion of his hearers. But the labour has not been uniformly applied, or has not been uniformly ſucceſsful. His ſtyle ſometimes ſoars too high, and occaſionally ſinks too low; and the latter perhaps is the caſe with the words marked in this ſhort extract:

P. 74. "However terrible the judgement was to 'the *wretches* themſelves."

How

How are we to reconcile what follows with a paſſage which occurs ten pages further?

P. 37. "The Jews began their day *with our ſix o'clock:* the third hour then was what we call the ninth, and was the time of their morning ſacrifice."

"Peter and John in their way to the temple at the *third* hour, the time of *evening* ſacrifice and prayer."

For *third* in this laſt quotation read *ninth.*

Dr. S. deals too frequently in hard words.—Speaking of Judas, p. 20., he ſays, "God would mark the fate of ſuch *a monſter* with ſome ſignal vengeance." We recommend this ſenſible Divine to imitate more cloſely the manner of the Sacred hiſtorians. He will not find in them any ſevere reflections, much leſs any uncandid inſinuation. Of Judas himſelf the obſervation ſimply is, "who betrayed him," or rather, "who gave him up;" and this, only to diſtinguiſh him from the other Apoſtle of the ſame name.

P. 112. "A truly ſincere and honeſt mind muſt have been induced to give leſs weight and importance to thoſe forms, which were but the huſk, or ſhell of religion, than to conſider them of eternal obligation."

This is obſcurely, if not inaccurately, expreſſed. The words "huſk or ſhell" are vulgar.

P. 121. We confeſs ourſelves unable to comprehend what this author means by the expreſſion, "*accompliſh* and confirm the new converts."

Ibid. The character of Simon Magus introduces this ſentence; the former part of which ſeems as difficult to be reconciled with the rules of ſound philoſophy, as the latter is with the proprieties of the Engliſh language: "He certainly muſt have poſſeſſed conſiderable talents, whether acting in his former capacity, by his own powers, or aided by evil ſpirits; otherwiſe he could never have acquired ſo numerous a following."

"P. 122. The eye, to outward appearance, may be fair and beautiful, and even its ſtructure juſt and accurate; but if any *foul ſtuff* ſhould lodge on that part, where the images of things are painted, all is darkneſs."

This is a ſingular confirmation of the juſtice of a former remark upon the ſtyle of this volume; as the coarſe and the fine are here blended in the ſame ſentence. So again, in p. 140, where, although we loudly applaud the ſentiment, we muſt object to the form under which it is conveyed. "We muſt not," ſays our author, "with profane cruelty *hand over a wretch* to the ſecular arm, but commit him to the mercy of God; by whom alone he is to ſtand, or fall; his righteous Judge." P. 170.

P. 170. Speaking of the prophets mentioned chap. xi. v. 27., our author ſays, "Of what religion theſe prophets were, the hiſtorian does not mention; but that they were Chriſtians ſeems very evident, from the following conſiderations:—"

Any enumeration of proofs in ſupport of a propoſition ſo very clear, muſt ſurely be deemed ſuperfluous.

We are afraid the learned author occaſionally relaxed his intervals of ſacred ſtudy with the pages of ſome profane poet; and in an unlucky moment miſapplied the words of the ſatirift:

'——ſtulta eſt clementia, cum tot ubique
Vatibus occurras, perituræ parcere chartæ.'

P. 184. We ſtrongly ſuſpect the propriety of the expreſſion "*cardinal vice.*" Cardinal virtues are very frequent, in name at leaſt: but the ſacred college would have juſt reaſon to be offended, if the example of our author ſhould make the objectionable phraſe current.

From the lecture on the xviith chapter, we ſelect the following paſſage as a ſpecimen of clear, judicious expoſition; one remark only excepted, which we ſhall therefore notice.

"In the 16th verſe we read that Paul's ſpirit was ſtirred in him, or, in other words, his mind was greatly diſturbed and exaſperated, 'when he ſaw the city wholly given to idolatry.' He began, therefore, to diſpute not only with Jews upon the ſubject, which particularly concerned them, but likewiſe with devout Greeks, upon the objects of their devotion. 'Then certain philoſophers of the Epicureans, and of the Stoics, encountered him.' 'Theſe two ſects were very oppoſite in their principles; yet each of them ill diſpoſed to receive the doctrines and precepts of Chriſtianity. For the Epicureans denied a Providence, the ſubſiſtence of the ſoul after death, and a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments. And to theſe tenets the conduct of their lives was anſwerable; for they addicted themſelves entirely to pleaſure, and preſent enjoyment. The Stoics, on the other hand, though profeſſing, and ſometimes practiſing a ſevere morality, were filled with notions quite inconſiſtent with the meek and humble religion of Chriſt. For, not to inſiſt on their falſe ſentiments of God, whom they held to be corporeal, and under the controul of fate; they repreſented their wiſe man as in himſelf all-ſufficient and perfect, not even inferior to the higheſt of the gods; and thus encouraged in their diſciples an immoderate pride.'

"Such were the men, ſome of whom ſaid, 'What will this babbler ſay? Other ſome, he ſeemeth to be a ſetter forth of ſtrange gods; becauſe he preached to them Jeſus and the reſurrection*.' And

* We have ſeen an ingenious obſervation (Markland's, if we remember correctly,) importing, that 'Αναστασις, or 'reſurrection,' was miſtaken by theſe Heathens for the name of one of the new deities, for the introduction of which St. Paul was cited before the Areopagus.

ſo they bring him to Areopagus, their higheſt and moſt celebrated Court of Judicature; by whoſe authority alone the admiſſion and worſhip of new gods was legally ſanctioned. Here Paul ſtood up in the midſt, and ſaid, 'Ye men of Athens, I perceive that in all things ye are too ſuperſtitious.' The word here tranſlated *ſuperſtitious*, is frequently uſed in a more favourable ſenſe: and if we attend to the ſpirit of Paul's oration, that it is every where elſe mild and conciliating, we ſhall be led to ſuppoſe nothing more intended here, than to convey the acknowledged character of the Athenians for religious worſhip* above all other nations. In this view his introduction will appear at once engaging to his hearers, and proper for the argument in hand: as if he had ſaid, Ye men of Athens, I perceive that ye are more than commonly zealous about your devotions, and careful to omit no one object of them whatſoever: for as I paſſed by, I found an altar with this inſcription, *To the Unknown God.*' Which account is confirmed by Heathen writers; and facts are recorded, ſhewing the exceſſive zeal of this people in the adoration of deities, of whoſe qualities, and even names, they were utterly ignorant. Neither is it improbable, that by the unknown God may be meant the God of the Jews; for he was called by the Gentiles *the nameleſs, the ineffable, the inviſible;* having no particular name like their own gods, nor like them worſhipped with ſtatues and images. Joſephus, among ſeveral other titles, gives him that of *unknown as to his eſſence.* The Jews alſo held the name of God in great ſecreſy and veneration, taking care not to uſe it in common, but reſerving it to moſt ſacred and ſolemn occaſions: 'Verily,' ſays the Prophet Iſaiah, 'thou art a God that hideſt thyſelf, O God of Iſrael!" p. 245.

For many reaſons we muſt enter our proteſt againſt the mode of reaſoning employed in the concluſion of this extract. We need only ſtate, that Pauſanias, Philoſtratus, and even St. Jerome, mention the inſcription as being in the plural, and not in the ſingular. The Father's words are very much to our purpoſe; therefore we ſhall make no apology for quoting them. "Inſcriptio autem aræ non ita erat, ut Paulus aſſeruit, ignoto Deo; verum quia Paulus non pluribus diis indigebat ignotis, ſed uno tantum ignoto Deo, ſingulari verbo uſus eſt." See Wetſtein. Diogenes Laertius, quoted by the ſame commentator, gives a particular account of the origin of this inſcription. It may be as ſatisfactory, perhaps, to refer it to the general practice of Polytheiſts, who were afraid of incurring the anger of any Divinity, if he ſhould be paſſed over in their religious

* This is ſomewhat awkwardly expreſſed: but we entirely agree with Dr. S. as to the accuracy of his interpretation. See Campbell on the four Goſpels, vol. i. p. 202. 4to. A criticiſm of the ſame excellent Divine upon the word δεισιδαιμονεστερους, Acts xiv. 15., is well worthy our author's notice. See Diſſertation iv. § 22.

religious addreſſes or ceremonies. Thus, after a particular invocation to each deity, Virgil adds,

" *Diique Deæque omnes*, ſtudium quibus arva tueri."

And in the ſame author the *pious* Æneas firſt mentions the Sun, the Earth, Jupiter, Juno, Mars, the Fountains and Rivers, and then concludes:

—— quæque Ætheris alti
Religio, et quæ cæruleo ſunt numina ponto.

They were not only afraid of ſeeming to neglect a deity whoſe name and worſhip were unknown to them, but they were even cautious of addreſſing a deity, whoſe name was familiar to them, by a wrong title, or in an improper manner:

Ζεὺς, ὅστις ποτ' ἐστὶν, εἰ τοῦδ' αὐτῷ φίλον κεκλημένῳ,
τοῦτο νιν προσείπω. Æſch. Agam. 168.

This ſuperſtitious reverence was carried to a greater length by the Athenians than by any other people. Inſtead of contenting themſelves with a ſweeping clauſe in their public invocations, ſuch as τοις θεοῖς εὔχομαι πᾶσι καὶ πάσαις, they actually erected an altar, and offered ſacrifices to the deities, with whom they had not yet the good fortune to be acquainted.

Our remarks upon the volume before us might be ſtill further extended; but theſe probably will inform the Reverend author of the nature of the corrections which we think his book more particularly requires. We ſhould not be thus minute, if we did not think the book calculated to do good. With that impreſſion upon our minds, we feel it our duty to offer any ſuggeſtion which may have a tendency to improve it. If, in the courſe of our ſtrictures, we have occaſionally relaxed into a ſmile, we can aſſure him this has by no means proceeded from a diſpoſition to trifle with ſo grave a ſubject, but from the good humour which we felt after peruſing a work ſo judiciouſly planned, and, in general, ſo correctly executed.

ART. CLXXXVII. *The Scenery, Antiquities, and Biography of South Wales, from Materials collected during two Excurſions in the Year* 1803. *By Benjamin Heath Malkin, Eſq. M.A. F.R.S. Embelliſhed with Views drawn on the Spot, by Laporte; and a Map of the Country.* 4to. pp. 634. Price 2 *l.* 12 *s.* 6 *d.* Longman and Rees, London. 1804.

AMONGST the numerous recommendations of our native iſle, it may be truly aſſerted that it affords abundant gratification to the admirer of the beauties of nature. In the High-

lands of Scotland, the bleak and barren mountains rising height above height in dreary sublimity, affect the mind with an almost sacred awe. If the traveller visit the lakes of Cumberland and Westmoreland, he will enjoy a rich variety of scenery, melting, as it were, in due gradation from the rude boldness of the crags which overhang the darksome solitariness of Ullswater, to the gentle and well wooded slopes which enclose the cheerful expanse of Windermere. But he will find the most rapid succession, and the amplest store of grand and beautiful landscapes in the Principality of Wales. On casting the eye over a well defined map of that division of our island, we find it intersected with innumerable ridges of mountains, the valleys formed by which are washed by a countless multitude of streams. Each of these mountains, streams, and valleys, affords a rich banquet for the practised eye of the artist, and of the connoisseur; whilst the peculiarities of the inhabitants of these romantic districts, who differ from their fellow subjects in language, in dress, and in habits of life, afford scope for the inquiries of the philosopher and the politician.

From the numerous parties which have of late years traversed the more accessible portions of the Principality, and the various tours through Wales which have lately issued from the press, it should seem that our countrymen who have money and time to spend in travelling, are at length convinced that grand and beautiful prospects are not the exclusive property of Switzerland; and that rural simplicity may exist far from the precincts of the Pays de Vaud. The unsettled state of the Continent has, indeed, for almost the whole of the last ten years, compelled our people of fortune to forego the tour of Europe; and the spirit of curiosity, being thus restrained from a foreign range, has been directed to the scenery, and to the natural and statistical history of our native land. Though we sincerely lament this long continuance of a state of warfare, we confess that we are not sorry for this effect of the prolongation of hostilities; and we are inclined to regard it as at least a little set-off against the inconveniences under which this nation at present labours, that no small part of the money which would in times of peace be transferred into the pockets of the *traiteurs* and *restaurateurs* of Paris, is expended upon the simple accommodations of a Cambrian inn.

Thus seeing with satisfaction the attention of our countrymen directed to the natural beauties of their native isle, we are happy to announce to them the publication of this volume, which contains a very particular account of the objects most worthy of the investigation of the traveller in South Wales. Mr. Malkin is not one of those summary tourists who abhor the

the thought of deviating from a turnpike road, and who ſee proſpects through no other medium than the window of a poſt chaiſe. Performing his journey on foot, he devoted five months to his tour, in the courſe of which he traverſed the country in various directions, and examined the moſt intereſting objects with laudable minuteneſs. He appears to have been fortunate not only in experiencing the far-famed hoſpitality of the ariſtocracy of South Wales, but alſo in deriving important information from ſeveral gentlemen of liberal and cultivated minds. In the courſe of his work, he gives the moſt unequivocal indications of the extent of his reading, of the accuracy of his obſervation, and of the candour of his ſentiments.

As the vocabulary of the component parts of rural ſcenery is comprifed in a very ſmall compaſs, it is a difficult taſk ſo to vary terms and forms of expreſſion, as to prevent a deſcription of ſuch ſcenery from becoming languid and tireſome. In ſurmounting this difficulty, we eſteem Mr. M. peculiarly happy. His language poſſeſſes, if we may be indulged in the expreſſion, a glowing richneſs of tint; and, what is of more importance, there is an individuality in his verbal painting, which produces a more than commonly vivid picture in the mind of his reader. We have ourſelves trodden no inconſiderable part of the ground which he has traverſed, and we can vouch for the fidelity of his deſcriptions, which have highly gratified us by reviving in our minds the remembrance of objects which we have contemplated with exquiſite delight. The ſtate of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, in South Wales, has not eſcaped Mr. M.'s attention; but we find few traces, in his page, of any proficiency in natural hiſtory. Into the condition of the inhabitants of this diſtrict, however, he has evidently made particular inquiries; and, though he has, as became a gentleman, forborne from narrating anecdotes of private individuals, by the diſcloſure of which too many travellers are eager to gratify an idle curioſity; his remarks on the genius and manners of the Southern Welſh are at once ſtriking and correct. On the ſubject of antiquities he ſeems to dwell with ſingular ſatisfaction; but we muſt confeſs that, from this departnent of his work, we have derived no pleaſure, and little profit. *Pace virorum tantorum* be it ſpoken, the annals of Cambrian princes have no charms for us. Dry genealogies, and obſcure notices of chieftains of ancient date, occaſionally occur in Mr. M.'s volume, like the barren moors over which the Welch touriſt is ſometimes obliged to toil, in order to arrive at ſome object of tranſcendent intereſt. But we ought to remember that, though theſe inquiries appear dry to us, they

may have their importance in the eyes of others; and as critics it may, perhaps, become us to say no more on this subject than that, in his antiquarian researches, Mr. M. appears to us to have been guided by the best authorities. With the biographical notices which he has introduced of the eminent and extraordinary characters who have flourished in the different counties which he has visited, we have been uniformly pleased. They are in themselves instructive and entertaining, and they serve to diversify Mr. M.'s work with an agreeable change of subjects.

Of the plan which he has adopted in arranging the materials collected in his tour, Mr. M. gives the following account:

"It is not in my power to carry my reader from stage to stage, in the order in which I performed my journey, because I made two circuits of South Wales, one in June and July, the other in August, September, and October; and by this arrangement enjoyed the beauties of the two seasons. On both occasions I visited the following places: Llantrisent, Cardiff, Brecknock, Baullt, Khayader, Aberistwid, Cardigan, Haverford West, Pembroke, Tenby, Llandillo Vawr, Swansea, Neath, and Bridgend; beginning and ending on both occasions with Cowbridge. At each of these places I arrived by a totally different route, which enabled me to comprehend at least two-thirds of each county; and as it would be tediously uninteresting to the reader to be informed as to the precise time at which each point of view was observed, I shall only draw his attention to personal circumstances, on occasions when the appearance of nature resulted peculiarly from the state of the seasons, or when the authenticity of my information was materially strengthened, by the sources from which it was derived. On paper, therefore, I shall for the most part steer my course, in the direction pointed out by the map; a regularity which will, I hope, more than compensate for the omission of those road-side anecdotes, which fill the page with a very disproportionate entertainment, and little accession to the stock of useful matter." p. 71.

We shall now proceed to lay before our readers specimens of the manner in which Mr. M. has executed the various departments of his work. Of his talent for the description of the beauties of nature, his account of the scenery of Hafod, the seat of Thomas Jones, Esq., affords the most decisive proof. In declaring our opinion that his picture of this enchanting spot is well worthy of the original, we bestow upon it the highest possible commendation. But the minuteness of his detail on this attractive subject, precludes us from copying the whole of his description of Hafod; and we cannot do justice to it by extracting from it a detached part. We trust, however, that we shall not trespass too much on the patience

of

of our readers by tranſcribing his account of the falls of the Hepſey, and of the ſubterranean courſe of the Melta.

"The route from Tragrath to the falls of the Hepſey is over a wild common, ſtony and dreary, but that the dells on each ſide enliven the ſcene. At the upper end of the common there is a farm-houſe above the Hepſey, whence the view down the vale of Neath to Swanſea and the mumbles, is very grand, as well as extenſive. Beyond the farm-houſe is the point where the Hepſey and Melta join. The bed of the former is at an immenſe depth immediately below; and the two ſtreams are ſeparated by a rich, turfy, well-wooded promontory, forming a frontiſpiece to the view, when you look up to the courſe of the united rivers. The roaring of the Hepſey caſcades is heard at a conſiderable diſtance, as they are approached from the upper grounds. On arriving at the edge of the dingle, the great fall burſts at once upon the view: a broad ſheet of water projecting itſelf over an abrupt ledge of rock, to the depth of fifty feet. The diſtance of the fall from the junction of the two dingles, with their ſtreams, is leſs than a quarter of a mile, ſo that both theſe objects can be embraced at once from the higher ground. But the general view of ſcenes like theſe is never the moſt intereſting. The leſs obtruſive, but moſt beautiful features, are loſt, while the termination detracts from the ſublimity. By taking the parts in detail, on the contrary, the attention, undiſturbed, is alive to every concomitant circumſtance, as well as to the leading character of the object: nothing is overlooked, becauſe nothing is too diſtant, or too perplexed, to be taken in both by the mind and the eye: every turn preſents ſomething new; while the perſpective, leſſened into obſcurity as it lengthens, holds out the promiſe of ſtill unexhauſted variety. The deſcent by which to examine the fall more minutely, is down a rugged and ſteep rock, which forms the boldeſt feature in the dingle at the bottom, but affords a very abrupt and hazardous paſſage. The aſcent on returning, were it neceſſary, would be very difficult; and there is apparently no other way; for the violence with which ſo large a body of water is precipitated, has worn the rock of the bed below the caſcade into a large and deep pool, and the breadth of the water all through the dingle, eſpecially when augmented by heavy rains in the night, as on the preſent occaſion, beſides other obſtacles not yet appearing, prevents it being forded. It excites, therefore, a ſtrong ſenſation of ſurpriſe, not unaccompanied with pleaſure, in the mind of a ſtranger, when he is told that his road lies very unexpectedly behind or under the caſcade; for ſuch is the rapidity of the torrent, unprepared by previous obſtacles for the perpendicular of the precipice, that the interwoven ſheet is thrown out ſo far, as to leave a clear paſſage, at all times, wide enough for a horſe-path, between the falling river and the rock. This path is formed by a rude natural ledge of lime-ſtone, covered with moſs, at about one-third of the height from the bottom of the precipice. Its breadth is about three feet, and conſtitutes the only projection in what would otherwiſe be like a flat wall. The ſtone,

however, ſhelves a little inwards from the topmoſt edge, while the water is forced forwards; ſo that the two elements unite in forming, as it were, a roof or canopy over the head of the paſſenger, which affords him an impenetrable ſhelter from an occaſional ſtorm. Mr. Warner, when he viſited this ſpot, had occaſion to ſeek the protection of the river from a ſhower of rain. The effect of ſunſhine on the caſcade, when behind it on a fine day, is both grand and beautiful. The particles of water glittering with a ſilvery brightneſs as they fall; the uncommon brilliancy of every thing without, ſeen through ſuch a medium, contraſted with the dark green of the moſs, everlaſtingly wet with ſpray; the corroded dinginеſs of the rock; the damp and vaporous gloom of the atmoſphere within; all together form a ſingularly mingled ſcene of awe and gaiety. The dark hue of the baſon below, deeply excavated by continual attrition, enhances the contraſt of the thin, tranſparent fluid in its deſcent. After paſſing the caſcade, the ſtranger has to ſkirt the further ſide of the dingle for a few ſteps, in front of the majeſtic rock he deſcended, when he comes upon another cataract, and a large cavern under the oppoſite bank cloſe by. Three more follow in immediate ſucceſſion; and all four within an eighth part of a mile from the firſt. The moſt conſiderable of theſe is about twenty-five feet in height, and the ſmalleſt about ten. The laſt is the largeſt. Theſe four are all ſeen at once; but owing to a bend of the river, the great caſcade, though ſo near, is not ſeen from the firſt of theſe. Were the five viſible at one point of view, they would nearly rival the great fall of the Mynach in Cardiganſhire, below the Devil's Bridge; for though they would ſtill be very inferior in point of height, the Hepſey is much broader than the Mynach, and in that reſpect would have the advantage in reſpect to grandeur. The whole of this dingle is profuſely overgrown with wood of various kinds, among which the venerable and claſſic oak predominates. From the laſt of the caſcades, the ſcarcely diſcernible path winds round the front of that promontory which ſeparates the two dingles and their rivers. But there is a path; for the country people drive their cattle this way, and under Hepſey caſcade, when they have occaſion to paſs from the Melta to the upper ſide of the Hepſey. Having gained the high ground, and paſſed two or three ſtony and unproductive fields, the brink of a precipice, not to be deſcended, diſcloſes the great fall of the Melta, which is broader than that of the Hepſey, and ſeventy feet high. It is very different from the others in point of character. It projects as ſuddenly, and, carrying a larger body of water, with more violence. It is therefore more awful and tremendous, but unaccompanied by thoſe circumſtances of variety and beauty, which adorn and enliven its rival cataract. Here the rocks on each ſide are naked and abrupt, ſo that the dingle is diveſted of its accuſtomed clothing for a conſiderable ſpace below the fall. Where the wood commences, it is poorer, more ſtunted in its growth, and more wildly entangled; ſo that, on the whole, it forms a dark and rugged ſcene. The caſcade is inacceſſible from below, as the rocks are not to be climbed, nor the dingle

to

to be threaded, from the confluence of the two rivers upwards. But the great curiosity of this river, singularly and sublimely characterized the catalogue of British scenery, is a stupendous cavern between the cascade and Ystradvellte, through the dark hollow of which the Melta runs for the space of half a mile. The top of this cavern forms the only bridge from one part to the other of the farm, which lies on the east and west sides of the river. The descent from the upper lands to the bed of the river is by no means difficult; nor does it at the first view present any thing beyond a rural, quiet landscape; but as the guide wound cautiously to the left, rather in a retrogade direction, we suddenly found ourselves at the mouth of the cavern, the opening of which is about forty-three feet wide, and nineteen feet high. Through this, Melta river rolls in a sinuous course, wearing its channel through the rock, deeply perforated into fathomless pools, whence it issues into day-light, after a subterraneous passage of at least eight hundred yards. There is a practicable passage through it; but the attempt is imprudent. It is necessary to carry candles; and if they are extinguished by the damp vapour, the difficulty and danger becomes very great. In one instance, a life was lost; though my guide had been through several times, and was ready to undertake it with any visitor. We penetrated about an hundred yards, as far as any glimmering of day-light from the mouth directed us: and this specimen of Stygian horrors was amply sufficient to satisfy all rational curiosity. The passage over uneven rocks, with scarcely a guiding light, and in many places with a bottomless gulph directly under on the left, in a misty atmosphere from the vapour of the place, and the exhaustion of a laborious walk, was not to be pleasurably continued for any length of time or distance: but if the object be worth attaining, any person who will enter this cavern as far as the natural light will lead him, may form a just, and I apprehend no contracted idea, of the classical Avernus and poetical descent into the infernal regions. On quitting the cavern, the Melta, finding its way into it through deep and narrow gullets, worn between the rocks, is crossed at the entrance, when a regular and beaten path winds gradually and pleasingly along the western bank, with the little village of Ystradvellte in the distance, and green meadows, delightfully quiet and rural, in the foreground. The church stands well, and is a pleasing object, after a circuit of about seven miles, with only one house in the way. But the village itself miserably disappoints the expectations which its distant aspect has excited. It consists of a few miserable cottages, most of them in a ruinous condition, inhabited by a ragged and barefooted peasantry, with less of natural urbanity than is usually experienced in these wild but not uncivil regions." p. 209—214.

The history of the establishment of the religious community at Trevecca records a striking proof of the power of fanaticism.

"On descending from these present haunts of mountain sheep, and ancient seats of unsociable and distrustful barons, the traveller arrives

arrives ſuddenly at a ſpot, the moſt incongruous and unexpected that can be conceived in theſe ſimple regions. He finds himſelf tranſlated all at once to the Paragon, Proſpect Place, Paradiſe Row, Mount Pleaſant, or ſome ſuch ſupreme court of finery, ſoppery, and folly, as occurs within a circle of five miles round London: a ſpace which comprehends moſt of the architectural abſurdities, and moſt of the horticultural deformities, to which a vitiated imagination has ever given birth. Yet does Trevecca ſeem by combination to have outdone them all. Here a Gothic arch! there a Corinthian capital! towers, battlements, and baſtions! peacocks cut in box, and lions hacked in holly! and who is it that has thus deluged his native country with bad taſte? Is it a nabob, an innkeeper, or a dancing-maſter, who, having contrived to raiſe a fortune by one of thoſe trades, which often proſper where better fail, prudently determines to record the events, and raiſe a triumphal monument on the ſcite of his honeſt father's humble cottage? Nay, verily it is a preacher of the Goſpel, profeſſedly of the ſtricteſt perſuaſion, and the moſt mortified habits:—Howell Harris was born at Trevecca, on the 23d of January 1714. Having a reſpectable paternal eſtate in reverſion, he was deſigned by his family for the church, and having received the rudiments of a claſſical education, was entered at St. Mary's Hall in Oxford; but he did not purſue or perfect thoſe ſtudies at the univerſity, which might have given him rank and character among its members. When he was about the age of twenty-five, he began his career as an itinerant preacher, ſacrificing all views of worldly aggrandiſement to what he conceived to be his higheſt duty. But a total want of rationality in the purſuit miſerably detracted from that approbation, which muſt otherwiſe have been extorted even from his opponents by the unqueſtionable reſpectability of the motive. He was the friend of Whitfield, with whom he afterwards quarrelled, and the firſt importer of the methodiſtical tenets and diſcipline into the principality, as Vavaſor Powel had been among the firſt to introduce the earlier and more reſpected modes of diſſent. He actually officiated in the fields; but after having undergone much perſecution, and incurred ſome danger in his travels, he determined, being, as my landlady at Talgarth informed me, a man of deep religion, to eſtabliſh a religious family at Trevecca, adopting it as his own, and devoting to it his patrimonial eſtates, with all the ſavings of a parſimonious life. With unaccountable inconſiſtency, he built a large and coſtly houſe, and laid out the grounds in the ſtyle I have before deſcribed. In this houſe, and on his own eſtate, he collected a number of families, profeſſing the ſame religious abſorption of mind. He even purchaſed farms in the neighbourhood, and eſtabliſhed manufactories, to as great an extent as his finances would admit, or opportunities preſented themſelves of laying out his money. The condition he impoſed on thoſe who joined his community was, that they ſhould purſue their avocations of huſbandry or trade ſolely for the benefit of the common ſtock, diſclaiming all private property, or interference in the management of the joint capital; renouncing the ſoci-

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ety of ſtrangers, and adhering punctually to the rigid obſervances of the family. The inſtitution continued to flouriſh during his lifetime in almoſt a formidable degree. Their farms entirely ſupplied their numerous families diſperſed over the eſtates; for the manſion houſe was occupied by his own family and cloſer intimates. There was, beſides, a large ſurplus for the markets; ſince their inflexible ſobriety was conſidered to have the effect of making them good farmers, though the buſineſs was much interrupted by their unremitting prayers. They alſo manufactured, independently of other articles, large quantities of fine flannels, the quality of which was in high requeſt all round the country; and large orders were executed for ſo diſtant a market as Briſtol. Mr. Harris died in July, 1773. I have not been ſtrictly correct in ſtating the produce of their labours as brought to a common ſtock; for it was all made over to him without control, though excluſively and conſcientiouſly applied to their uſe, and the extenſion of the eſtabliſhment. By his will, he bequeathed the whole of his poſſeſſions, hereditary and accumulated, to the maintenance of the family for ever on the ſtrict principles of its foundation. He left two truſtees, with regulations for the replacing them; who were to live in the houſe, receive the earnings of the people, conduct the pecuniary arrangements and devotional ſervices, and in every reſpect exerciſe that plenary authority which he had himſelf preſerved. He was married, and had a daughter, to whom he left nothing, except an apartment in the houſe, on the ſame terms as the others, if ever ſhe choſe to become a member of the family. It is, however, to be obſerved, in extenuation of what men of leſs deep religion will conſider as injuſtice towards a deſerving child, that her mother's fortune, not inconſiderable, rendered Miſs Harris independent of her father. But this independence, and all worldly cares and poſſeſſions, ſhe was to relinquiſh if ever ſhe came to Trevecca. It will be readily anticipated that ſhe did not make that election, when the reader is informed, that ſhe was married to a gentleman of Brecknock, of the name of Prichard, I believe before Mr. Harris's death.

"There have been, within the recollection of perſons reſiding at Talgarth, one hundred and forty efficient members of this extraordinary family, beſides children: there are now not more than ſixty; but the ſtrict ritual of the place is ſtill obſerved; the character of induſtrious ſecluſion and eccentric fanaticiſm is ſedulouſly maintained; and the viſitor of Trevecca may ſee it now, as in the days of the founder. There is ſervice in the houſe three times a day all the year round, the time of harveſt not excepted: each perſon is allowed a certain proportion of abſences, on the ſame plan as the attendance of chapel is regulated for the ſtudents in college; and if the number is exceeded, the offender loſes the benefit of the inſtitution, however reaſonable may be his excuſe, or urgent the plea of his neceſſity. The ſervice, though ſo frequent, is very long; and a numerous attendance is by theſe regulations conſtantly ſecured. It were much to be wiſhed that it were better worth attending! I happened to arrive there, without any previous knowledge of the place

place or inſtitution, about three o'clock on a Sunday, when a number of decently dreſſed and well behaved people were aſſembling, with whoſe manners on the outſide of the chapel I was well pleaſed; but the inſide exhibited ſuch a melancholy exhibition of fanatical fatuity, as, happily for the honour of human intellect, is rarely to be met but among theſe jumping enthuſiaſts. The ſpeaker, for I will not inſult the dignity of our eſtabliſhment by conſidering him as a clergyman, had his face and head completely muffled with a red pocket-handkerchief tied under his chin: the cauſe of this might have been candidly aſcribed to the tooth-ache, had I not obſerved at Brecknock and elſewhere, that the preachers of theſe degradedly methodiſtical and jumping ſects, which would not be worth noticing in a work of this kind, were they not the unhappy growth of the ſoil, uniformly array themſelves in ſimilar paraphernalia, probably in an oſtentatious ſhow of ſqualid piety. The reſt of his apparel was conſiſtently mean; and all his air and manner indicated the loweſt ignorance, though I could not judge of his language. Its effects atoned, however, in power, for what it might want in elegance, or the means of rational conviction. The groans of his hearers, ſometimes in a ſolo part, and ſometimes in chorus, correſponded with the ſcarcely human contortions and ejaculations of the preacher. Some ſtood; ſome knelt; and ſome were ſtretched upon the floor in proſtrate humiliation. I did not, however, ſtay for the animating ſound of "Glory to the Lamb!" leſt the forgetfulneſs of ſuperſtitious enthuſiaſm, violating the laws of hoſpitality, might have compelled me to join in the fantaſtic rites of light-heeled devotion. But I will no longer weary the patience of my readers on the habits of an inſtitution, which has culled with ſcrupulous care all the abſurdities and evils of the monaſtic life, except the prohibition of marriage; and at the ſame time paſſed a ſevere edict of excluſion againſt all its learning and utility. Mr. Harris had a brother who made a conſiderable fortune as an army taylor in London, which was, I believe, inherited by Mrs. Hughes, his neice, who has a very handſome manſion near Trevecca. The family are very much reſpected; and it is moſt unaccountable, that the zeal of a man, placed by birth and education in the moſt reſpectable claſs of ſociety, ſhould have degenerated into ſuch unmeaning and irrational mummery. It is true, indeed, that the ſenatorial names of Wilberforce and Hill have graced the drivellings of pretended inſpiration; but they have not condeſcended to countenance any thing quite ſo repugnant to common ſenſe, or ſo irreconcileable with the claſſical taſte and elegant attainments of a gentleman. Since my return, I have heard accounts of Mr. Harris not ſo favourable to the diſintereſted abſurdity of his character and views. I know the imputations under which leaders of ſects and parties labour from the miſconſtructions of their opponents, and pretend not to decide. It is certain, he extorted large ſums from the deluded people among whom he travelled, as in aid of the eſtabliſhment at Trevecca. The frugality and ſelf-denial of his habits is alſo controverted; and his taſte in building, which ſpeaks for itſelf, corroborates in ſome meaſure

ſure the ſuſpicion. His doctrine throughout the principality was, that thoſe who came with his credentials were ſent of God, and if they wanted a coat, a dinner, or a horſe, the beſt in the poſſeſſion of the believer was reſpectively to be furniſhed. But we are here at the very head-quarters of Methodiſm, the capital of its empire in the principality. At Treduſtan, cloſe by Trevecca, is a college founded by Lady Huntingdon, for educating young men to continue the ſucceſſion of the miniſtry: but it is at preſent untenanted by pupils, though there is occaſional ſervice there; I ſhall therefore gladly diſmiſs it, without enquiring into the nature of its ordinances, which probably coincide with thoſe eſtabliſhed elſewhere by the zealous patroneſs." P. 241—247.

From Mr. M.'s notices of the peculiar cuſtoms of the inhabitants of South Wales, we ſhall ſelect his account of a Welch wedding, and of the funeral honours paid to the dead.

"Ill may it befal the traveller who has the misfortune of meeting a Welch wedding on the road: he would be inclined to ſuppoſe that he had fallen in with a company of lunatics eſcaped from their confinement. It is the cuſtom of the whole party that are invited, both men and women, to ride full ſpeed to the church porch; and the perſon who arrives there firſt has ſome privilege or diſtinction at the marriage-feaſt. To this important object all inferior conſiderations give way; whether the ſafety of his majeſty's ſubjects who are not going to be married, or their own, inceſſantly endangered by boiſterous, unſkilful, and contentious jockeyſhip. The natives who are acquainted with the cuſtom, and warned againſt the cavalcade by its vociferous approach, turn aſide at a reſpectful diſtance; but the ſtranger will be fortunate if he eſcapes being overthrown by an onſet, the occaſion of which puts out of ſight that urbanity ſo generally characteriſtic of the people.

"Their cuſtoms in caſe of death are not leſs remarkable. The bed on which the corpſe lies is always ſtrewed with flowers, and the ſame cuſtom is obſerved after it is laid in the coffin. They bury much earlier than we in England; ſeldom later than the third day, and very frequently on the ſecond. This haſte would be conſidered here as leſs reſpectful and affectionate; yet, take their cuſtoms in the aggregate, and they will be found to be more ſo. Indeed, reſpect or the reverſe on ſuch occaſions is altogether determined by opinion: the cuſtom or ceremony is in itſelf nothing, any further than as it is ſuppoſed to indicate the mind. It appears to me, that the cuſtom of burying early is in every reſpect the moſt proper, where the evidence of actual mortality is deciſive. In this part of the country eſpecially it is for the intereſt of the living; for the habit of filling the bed, the coffin, and the room, with ſweet-ſcented flowers, though originating probably in delicacy as well as affection, muſt of courſe have ſtrong tendency to expedite the progreſs of decay. The attentions which immemorial preſcriptions demand from a family, are ſuch as could not be continued long without ſerious inconvenience. It is an invariable practice, both by day and night

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to watch a corpſe; and ſo firm a hold has this ſuppoſed duty gained upon their imaginations, that probably there is no inſtance on record, of a family ſo unfeeling and abandoned, as to leave a dead body in the room by itſelf a ſingle minute in the interval between the death and burial: ſuch a violation of decency would be remembered for generations. The hoſpitality of the country is not leſs remarkable on melancholy than on joyful occaſions. The invitations to a funeral are very general and extenſive; and the refreſhments are not light, and taken ſtanding, but ſubſtantial and prolonged. Any deficiency in the ſupply of ale would be as ſeverely cenſured on this occaſion as at a feſtival. With reſpect to theſe peculiarities, it is to be underſtood, that they apply rather to the farmers and peaſantry, than to perſons of condition, who are apt to loſe their nationality, and contract the manners and opinions of the polite world: but ſtrewing flowers and watching the corpſe are univerſal among all ranks and degrees, becauſe the obſervance or neglect of ſuch ceremonies depends on ſervants and nurſes, whoſe minds are always peculiarly ſuſceptible of local and ſuperſtitious prejudices. The grave of the deceaſed is conſtantly overſpread with plucked flowers for a week or two after the funeral: the planting of graves with flowers is confined to villages and poorer people. It is, perhaps, a prettier cuſtom. It is very common to dreſs the graves on Whitſunday, and other feſtivals, when flowers are to be procured: and the frequency of this obſervance is a good deal affected by the reſpect in which the deceaſed was held. My father-in-law's grave, in Cawbridge church, has been ſtrewed by his ſurviving ſervants, every Sunday morning for theſe twenty years. It is uſual for a family not to appear at church till what is called the month's end, when they go in a body, and then are conſidered as having returned to the common offices of life." p. 67—99.

"In addition to the foregoing remarks, it may be obſerved of the Glamorganſhire cuſtoms, that when a young couple are to be married, their ways to the church are ſtrewed with ſweet-ſcented flowers and evergreens; and on ſuch occaſions it is the uſual phraſe, that thoſe perſons are going to their nuptial beds, not to their graves. There ſeems to be a remarkable coincidence between theſe people and the ancient Greeks, with reſpect to the avoiding ill-omened words. None ever moleſt the flowers that grow on graves, for it is deemed a kind of ſacrilege to do ſo. A relation or friend will occaſionally take a pink, if it can be ſpared, or a ſprig of thyme, from the grave of a beloved or reſpected perſon, to wear it in remembrance; but they never take much, leſt they ſhould deface the growth on the grave. This cuſtom prevails principally in the moſt retired villages; and I have been aſſured, that in ſuch villages where the right of grazing the church-yard has been enforced, the practice has alienated the affections of very great numbers from the clergyman and their churches; ſo that many have become diſſenters, from the ſingularly uncommon reaſon, that they may bury their friends in diſſenting burying grounds, plant their graves with flowers, and keep them clean and neat, without any danger of their being cropt. This may

may have been the fact in some places; but I confidently believe, that few of the clergy would urge their privileges to an unfair or offensive extent. There is in the world an unfeeling kind of false philosophy, which will treat such habits as these with ridicule. Mr. Mason justly calls such philosophers, "Those only who are cursed with breasts of steel." These elegant and highly pathetic customs of South Wales, make the best impressions on the mind. What can be more affecting than to see all the youth of both sexes in a village, and in every village through which the corpse passed, dressed in their best apparel, and strewing with sweet-scented flowers the ways along which one of their beloved neighbours goes to his or her marriage bed?"—pp. 608, 609.

In his account of the mode in which he performed his journey, Mr. M. informs us, that whilst he prosecuted his route on foot, his servant attended him on horseback with a supply of clothes, and also with a few select books.—We are surprized that he did not conceive it possible that future tourists might wish to adopt his publication as a travelling companion, and that he did not print it in a more portable form. In a future edition he will perhaps accommodate those who will not deem two octavo volumes too great an incumbrance. For this purpose he will, in our opinion, do well to sacrifice the thirteen engravings of M. La Porte;—a sacrifice, indeed, of no great magnitude, in our estimation, as the greater part of these engravings appear to us to be of very little value.

Art. CLXXXVIII. *The Topography of Troy and its Vicinity: Illustrated and Explained by Drawings and Descriptions. Dedicated, by Permission, to her Grace the Duchess of Devonshire. By W. Gell, Esq. of Jesus College, M.A. F.A.S. and late Fellow of Emmanuel College, Cambridge.* Folio. pp. 124. Price 10 *l.* 10 *s.* in boards. Longman and Rees, London. 1804.

THE perusal of this elegant volume will afford the highest gratification to classical readers. Those who have admitted the impression of reality, which is generally produced by the magic numbers of Homer, will feel delight in familiarizing themselves with the scenes of the Iliad: while even they who doubt the historic truth of the narration, will be gratified by tracing the ground, consecrated by the noblest efforts of imagination.

It has been Mr. Gell's object, to delineate the situation of Troy and the surrounding scenery, from different aspects, in such a manner as to convey a perfect idea of the appearances to an attentive reader; and this we think he has fully and ably accomplished. Uniting the accomplishments of an expert

pert draughtſman to a thorough knowledge of his author, he has examined every object with unuſual accuracy, and has produced the moſt complete illuſtration of Homer's topography that we have yet ſeen.

The gleanings of this inquiry are indeed far ſhort of what the antiquarian would deſire to obtain. The hand of deſolation has repeatedly paſſed over the plain; and the lapſe of ages has even changed the dimenſions of the land. But enough remains to vindicate the correctneſs of Homer, and to add freſh intereſt to the peruſal of his immortal poem.

"In approaching the Troad, each bay, mountain, and promontory, preſented ſomething new to the eye, and excited the moſt agreeable reflections in the mind; ſo that in a few days I found myſelf in poſſeſſion of a number of obſervations and drawings, taken in a part of the world, concerning which although much has been written, there ſtill exiſted a great deficiency of thoſe materials which might enable the reader to form a ſatisfactory opinion, without encountering the difficulties of a tedious voyage. I thought that ſuch information would gratify men of literature and inquiry. I was confident, that delineations and deſcriptions of a fertile plain, watered by abundant and perennial ſtreams, affording almoſt impregnable poſitions, and ſo ſituated, as to command one of the moſt important paſſes in the world, muſt be intereſting, not to ſay valuable, to politicians and ſtateſmen. It is perhaps unneceſſary to add, that I was not without the hope of convincing others, as I had been myſelf convinced, that the hiſtory, as related by Homer, is confirmed by the fulleſt teſtimony, which a perfect correſpondence between the preſent face of the country, and the deſcription of the poet, can poſſibly give to it.

To attempt elegance of ſtyle in a work of mere deſcription, would be ſo much out of place, that I am perſuaded an apology will not be required for ſuch imperfections of language as may be found in this volume. I am well aware, that my anxiety to give the reader a thorough knowledge of the country, may in ſome caſes have led me into uſeleſs repetitions, while, in others, the mention of many particulars may be omitted, which I have falſely imagined were generally known. In regard to the plates, I can truly aver that they are accurate copies of faithful drawings, made by myſelf on the ſpot; and I think I am juſtifiable in obſerving, that thoſe who are intereſted in the ſubject, by a careful examination of them may acquire as clear a conception of the plain and its environs, as a traveller who is not a draughtſman, could obtain in the country itſelf. In the deſcription of the plates, I have confined myſelf for the moſt part to the ſingle object of illuſtrating the topography of the Iliad; yet as the relation of the few occurrences we met with during our ſhort journey, may not be entirely unintereſting to ſome of my readers, I have not omitted to inſert it." p. 1.

Mr.

Mr. Gell ſet out on this intereſting voyage in March 1801, and proceeded to the village of Bounarbaſhi, which occupies part of the ſite of ancient Troy. Here, he was lodged in the Aga's houſe, where he had nearly incurred conſiderable danger, by inadvertently entering the haram.

"I got up at an early hour in the morning, and walked to the top of the hill of Bounarbaſhi, not a little delighted to imagine myſelf in the Pergama of Priam. I found my expectations and wiſhes moſt amply gratified. Foundations of walls, and perhaps temples, were viſible; and three tumuli, of the ſpecies which Homer deſcribes, bore teſtimony to the former exiſtence of inhabitants on this ſpot, very different from the Turks of Bounarbaſhi. Nearer the ſummit, the foundation of a thick wall is viſible, extending acroſs a narrow part of the hill, bounded on each ſide by a ſteep precipice. Beyond the wall the ground riſes ſtill higher, and ſwells out into an oval ſhape, while one of the rivers, which flow through the plain, almoſt encircles the foot of the rocks at its baſe. On the top of this hill, which ſeems to have been the citadel, or Pergama of Troy, more foundations are diſcoverable, and a ſurrounding wall may be traced in almoſt every part. On the higheſt point is a little mount hollowed out in the centre; round it is a circular foundation, on the north ſide of which is a block of ſquared ſtone. Near this a ſteep precipice falls almoſt perpendicularly toward the river below, and the recollection of that rock, from which the Trojans once thought of precipitating the horſe preſented to them by the Greeks, immediately ſuggeſted itſelf to my mind. From this ſummit of the rock is a beautiful proſpect of a vale, watered by the Simoeis, which runs through the deep glen almoſt ſurrounding the Pergama. To the weſt, the iſle of Tenedos is viſible in its whole extent, while the plain, with its two rivers, and its numerous tumuli, is terminated to the north by the Archipelago and the Helleſpont. The view being ſo extenſive from this point, I took the opportunity of obſerving ſuch ſpots as might moſt effectually conduce to a thorough knowledge of the plain; and theſe I viſited after breakfaſt in a regular manner, taking in my way drawings of every thing which I thought capable of throwing any light on the ſubject of the ſituation of Troy. In my way to Bounarbaſhi, I meaſured with a pedometer, the diſtance between the moſt remarkable points of the hill. I found my companions at breakfaſt, and obſerved with pleaſure that we were arrived in a climate which produced not only graſs in December, but even milk, to which we had been ſtrangers in our journey through Greece. After breakfaſt I again viſited the ſprings of Scamander with my friend, and, after drawing them, recommended an examination of the environs of Bounarbaſhi. The firſt objects which caught my attention were the marble capitals of columns, of no great ſize, but of workmanſhip like that in many of the Engliſh churches. In the whole courſe of our tour we had never ſeen any fragments which did not ſeem to be the production of an artiſt of the moſt refined taſte; a circumſtance which made theſe the more

ſingular, and almoſt perſuaded us that we had found ſome of the original marbles of Troy, for certainly the arts had not arrived at perfection when theſe capitals were formed. They were not all alike; but that they were not of Turkiſh ſculpture, appears from the ignorance of that nation in regard to ſuch ornaments; for ſome handſome capitals of the Ionic order, and about the ſame dimenſions, are turned upſide down in the walls of the buildings which ſurround the Aga's houſe; a proof that the Turks of this country would never have thought of carving capitals, when they could find them ready near the ſpot. We proceeded to the ſummit of a hill, which lies between Bounarbaſhi and the Simoeis on the eaſt; after which we deſcended into a narrow glen, between the hill of Bounarbaſhi and the chain of Ida. This glen is watered by the broad and rapid Simoeis, the banks of which are ſhaded with willow, and tamariſks, while the ſtream is here and there decorated with little iſlands full of buſhes. The lower part of the hill is laid out in ſmall incloſures, while the ſides are clothed with rough wood climbing to the rocky ſummit.

"The precipices of the hill of Bounarbaſhi are covered with an infinite number of looſe ſtones, which may have been uſed for the building of ordinary houſes, and ſuch as we had before ſeen uſed for that purpoſe in the ruins of the city in Delos. In a ſhort time we returned towards the weſt, ſtill continuing with the river on our left, and the rocks of the citadel on the right, which here aroſe to the height of about four hundred feet. The dell ſoon after aſſumed the form of a fertile vale, interſperſed with corn-fields and meadows, and wanting nothing but a clearer ſtream than the Simoeis to render it perfectly beautiful. We had heard ſo much in England of the inſignificance of the Simoeis and the Xanthus, that we were amazed to find the former running with a ſtream that would have been called conſiderable, even in our own country, while we had ſeen the latter a violent torrent almoſt at its ſource. If Homer had been accuſtomed, as we had, to the ſight of ſuch rivers as the Iliſſus, Cephiſus, Aſopus, Iſmenus, or Inopus, or of ſuch fountains as thoſe of Dirce, Enneacrunus, Arethuſa, or even Caſtalia itſelf, the ſources of Scamander, and the floods of Simoeis, muſt have appeared miraculous indeed; ſo that there would have been nothing wonderful if his deſcription had appeared ſomewhat exaggerated, in the eſtimation of an Engliſh reader. It is but fair, however, to obſerve, that Homer deſcribes even the eddying Scamander as of ſuch inconſiderable dimenſions, that a fallen tree extended as a bridge acroſs the ſtream. The ancients alſo have deſcribed the Xanthus as yellow; a circumſtance which has perſuaded ſome of the moderns, that the Xanthus was on the eaſt, and the Simoeis on the weſt of the plain: but it is evident that they only ſpeak of the mouth of the river, where the ſand of Simoeis had as much corrupted the waters of the Scamander, as the clearneſs of the Rhine is deſtroyed by its junction with the Aar. After remaining ſome time in the vale, we determined to aſcend to the ſummit of the Acropolis, in ſpite of a hot ſun, and a very ſteep precipice, which oppoſed

itſelf; for we had diſcovered a cave in the ſolid rock, at a great height. After climbing to it, we found that it appeared perfectly natural, and only penetrated to the depth of a few feet. Arriving near the ſummit, we diſcovered the foundations of walls in the moſt defenſible part of the rock, and ſoon after gained the higheſt point of the Pergama, where we remained ſome time for the purpoſe of taking ſketches, and reſting after our fatigue." p. 10—13.

The principal part of the volume is occupied with a ſeries of delineations, beginning with a ſketch of Mount Gargarus, and extending to the Troad, the ground, and environs of Ilium. Each plate is accompanied with a deſcription. Many of the engravings are ſlight, and little more than outlines, but ſome of the principal views are executed in a beautiful manner. We ſhall notice a few of the moſt intereſting.

In the 16th plate, Mr. Gell gives a view of the Simoeis, which is at leaſt one hundred yards broad, and, according to him, is a conſiderable river, not a winter torrent,—as it has been repreſented by ſome travellers. The mount in the fore-ground of this print Mr. Gell ſurmiſes to have been the common tumulus raiſed by the Greeks, during the truce, which they employed in raiſing the entrenchments to cover the camp and fleet.

In plate 17, Mr. G. points out the ſituation of the tomb of Ilus, at the junction of the Simoeis and Scamander: this ſubject is continued in the deſcription of the 18th plate, which ſhews the union of thoſe ſtreams, with all their windings.

"The Tomb of Ilus, and the Mount of the Plain, are points concerning which a variety of oppoſite ſentiments have ariſen. The poet, has, however, left many indications of the real poſitions of theſe monuments, and ſuch as appear to fix them on the banks of Xanthus, and near the confluence of the rivers. The Thrōſmos, or elevation of the plain, was in the neighbourhood of Scamander, and between that river and the ſhips. It was alſo ſo near the ſhips, that the tumult of the Trojan camp was heard by the Greeks on the ſhore. The elevation, a ſegment of which forms the neareſt part of the fore-ground of this plate, correſponds with the ſituation and character of the Thrōſmos of the Iliad. If it can be ſhewn that Thrōſmos was near the tumulus of Ilus, that the tumulus of Ilus was near the ford of Scamander, and that the ford was near, yet a little above the confluence of the rivers, it cannot be denied that the ſubjects repreſented in the preſent view, are the Thrōſmos, ford, and tumulus deſcribed by the poet. That Thrōſmos was near the tomb of Ilus, may be learned from the circumſtance, that when the Trojans were encamped upon the mount, Hector called a council upon the tumulus of that king. Now the tomb of Ilus was in ſuch a ſituation with regard to the Trojan camp, that the tumult of the ſoldiery did not interrupt the debates. Alſo, it could not have been far from the

camp, if advanced before it, for that would have been impoſſible, when the enemy were ſo near; and if it be objected, that the tomb of Ilus might have been nearer to the town than the Thrōſmos, and conſequently that a council would have been ſecure even at a great diſtance from the Trojan camp, yet ſuch a ſuppoſition is inconſiſtent with the cuſtom of the times; when military councils ſeem to have been held beyond the lines of a camp, and advanced towards the enemy. In compliance with this ſyſtem, Agamemnon called a council of war while Hector was ſtationed on the monument of Ilus; and though the Greeks were in the utmoſt conſternation after their late defeat, yet the monarch and his aſſociates paſſed the foſs and rampart of their own camp, and choſe a place for the council on the field of battle, advanced towards the Trojans, where there remained a ſmall ſpace unincumbered with the ſlain.

"It may be added in confirmation of this argument, that Agamemnon had on that evening convened the Greek Princes to ſupper in his own tent; where, if it had not been the cuſtom to paſs the lines of the encampment in order to hold a council, every thing relating to the embaſſy to Achilles might eaſily have been arranged.

"If then the Greeks, diſmayed and defeated as they were, held their council advanced before their camp, the Trojan Chief, flushed with victory, would have little to fear on the monument of Ilus.

"It ſeems from theſe circumſtances, that this tumulus muſt have been very near the Thrōſmos, and that it might have been ſomewhat nearer to the Greek camp than that elevation. Homer himſelf has informed us, that the tomb of Ilus was near the ford of Scamander, for he relates, that Priam, going from the city with the herald Idæus to redeem the body of Hector, met the god Mercury, after he had ſtayed near the ſepulchre of Ilus, that his horſes and mules might drink of the river. Here it may be objected that the poet ſays, the horſes were allowed to drink after they had paſſed the tomb of Ilus, and conſequently that the tumulus in queſtion would be on the wrong ſide of the water. But the Greek will equally admit of the tranſlation by the tomb, or on one ſide of it. The word παρὲξ is uſed in this inſtance, and occurs in another place, in a way that cannot be miſtaken; for Dolon being perceived by Diomed and Ulyſſes, the latter conceal themſelves (παρὲξ ὁδὸν) ſo as to ſuffer the ſpy to paſs them in order to intercept his retreat." p. 50—52.

Plate 19th is a very large and beautiful view of the plain of Troy, ſomewhat in the ſtyle of a panorama.

In deſcribing the ſmall view of the ſuppoſed tumulus of Achilles, Mr. G. thus ſpeaks of ſome late reſearches into its contents:

"A Jew acting as Conſul of the French nation at the Dardanelles, was ordered by the Ambaſſador Choiſeul Gauffier, to make excavations in the greater of theſe tumuli; but it is not eaſy to diſcover whether he ever commenced the operation, as no appearance now remains of any ſuch reſearch, nor is there any trace left of human labour, except a ſmall hollow among the circular foundations

tions at the ſummit. The Jew is ſaid to have ſent a ſmall piece of metallic ſubſtance, about the ſize of the hilt of a ſword, to Conſtantinople, for the inſpection of the Ambaſſador. The figure of a man, whoſe feet reſted on the backs of two ſmall horſes, was diſcovered, and the fragments of human legs on their ſides ſhewed that there had been originally a rider upon each. The head of the principal figure was ſupported by two ſphinxes. The ſame Jew ſent the fragments of two vaſes of the moſt ancient Greek pottery, which, he ſaid, were found in the tumulus. It is to be obſerved, that the Jew could not have known that the aſhes of the three heroes were placed in two urns, and ſo far there is an appearance of credibility in his diſcoveries, particularly as a golden vaſe would have been ſo tempting an article, that it is not impoſſible that of earthen ware might have been ſubſtituted as ſoon as the funeral ceremonies were performed; a circumſtance which the poet would always avoid mentioning. Vaſes have alſo been found containing ſmaller urns, and ſuppoſing that ſuch were uſed at the time of the Trojan war, the number of centuries that have elapſed might well account for the complete deſtruction of any metallic ſubſtance; added to which, an urn called gold by the poet, might have conſiſted of gilded copper or iron, for gold was not ſo plentiful in Greece till her commerce became more extended. Some have ſuppoſed that the figure mentioned above might have been one of the handles of the golden urn; but it was ſo mutilated and decayed, that it required all the ingenuity of all the French in Conſtantinople to make any thing intelligible from the fragments. The authenticity of theſe productions was even at the time much diſputed, and ſome perſons went ſo far as to affirm that the antiquities were manufactured in Paris. It may be added, that a perſon who began to excavate in the tumulus of Achilles, near the ſummit, where are now the only traces, would not find the aſhes of the hero, according to Homer, till he had cleared away the earth nearly to the natural level of the ſoil; and that if any urn was found near the top, it muſt have been placed there in after-times. This, however, might have been the caſe without diſturbing the aſhes of the original poſſeſſor. To my own inquiries I have never procured any ſatisfactory account of theſe relics, even from thoſe who were concerned in the production of them to the world; and when I have requeſted information from French gentlemen of character, who knew the truth, I have always found them impenetrably ſilent." p. 67.

In a ſucceſſion of ſubſequent views, the reader is introduced to a knowledge of the ground occupied by the city itſelf. The preſent village of Bounarbaſhi is ſuppoſed by Mr. Gell to ſtand nearly on the ſite of the Scæan gate, while the hill above was covered by the Acropolis and the buildings of the city, and muſt have formed, as our author remarks, a view of uncommon grandeur. The 28th and 29th plates are particularly intereſting, as they ſeem to fix the ſituations of the Erineos, the beech-tree, and the Scæan gate, with much probability. We

ſhould have gladly extracted both deſcriptions, but they would hardly be intelligible without the prints. On the ſituation of the great tower of Ilium, we would juſt beg leave to hazard this remark; that Homer's deſcription of the flight of Hector has always impreſſed us with an idea, that the σκοπιη was diſtinct from the πυργος, and that the former was a guerite, as it is termed in modern fortification.

We ſhall give a part of this chapter on plate 29th, which will intereſt the critical reader.

" On this, which ſeems ſometimes to have been ſtyled the projecting and the ſacred tower, Priam ſtood, when he diſcovered Achilles approaching the city, on which occaſion he deſcended from it, and went to the keeper of the gate, giving orders that it ſhould be ſet wide open till the flying Trojans were ſafe within the wall. Having performed this taſk, the king returned to the tower; for it was from ſuch a ſituation that he endeavoured to diſſuade Hector from the combat; and Andromache, heaving lamentations from the tower, ran to that building, and the wall, where ſhe found Hecuba and the other Trojans in deſpair. It may be added, that Priam and his queen endeavoured to perſuade Hector to make a timely retreat, while he was leaning againſt the projecting tower; conſequently he muſt have been very near them, and the wall and tower muſt have advanced forwards from the Scæan gate, for Hector was before it. Again, if the projecting tower and the great tower of Ilion were not the ſame, they were very cloſe together; for the ſame deſcription is given of the relative ſituation of each.

" The watch-tower is the firſt object paſſed by Hector in his flight towards the ſprings, and it muſt have been either attached to the great tower, or very near the Erineos, unleſs it be ſuppoſed to have ſtood on one ſide of the way to the gate, as the tower of Ilion did on the other. That it was near the Erineos, however, is more probable, for it is mentioned with that hill, as the beech-tree is with the Scæan gate.

" The Erineos, or hill of the wild fig-tree, next occurs. This ſpot has long been ſought by the writers upon the topography of Troy, and ſome have repreſented the ſprings of Scamander at a much greater diſtance from Bounarbaſhi than they really are, for the ſake of bringing in the hill to the weſt of the village, under the name of Erineos. The true characteriſtic of Erineos is, that it was near the Scæan gate, for the ſprings were near that entrance, yet the Erineos was paſſed in the way to them. The Erineos was alſo in the direct road from the tomb of Ilus and the fords of Xanthus to the Scæan gate; for, ſome of the Trojans being routed, in the battle of the eleventh book, fled before Agamemnon, through the middle of the plain, paſt the Erineos, halting when they had reached the beech-tree and the Scæan gate. Homer adds, that the fugitives were very anxious to reach the city, conſequently they took the neareſt way, and Erineos muſt be in the direct line between the

the fords of Xanthus and the Scæan gate. It was alſo not diſtant, and in the plain, as ſome have ſuppoſed it, but cloſe to the city, ſo that the wall was thrice in danger of being ſcaled from it. It was ornamented by a wild fig-tree, and was an eminence, for the wind is ſaid to beat upon it. In all theſe reſpects, no ſpot could correſpond better with the deſcription, than the Turkiſh burial-ground does with the Erineos of Homer, as may be ſeen in the general map. The chariot-road ſucceeded the Erineos in the flight of Hector. Now the chariot-road led from the gate towards the ſea and camp of the Greeks, at leaſt we read of no other in the Iliad; and the proof is, that Hector meets in his way ſome of the Greek troops who came from the camp, and who are commanded by Achilles not to diſcharge their weapons at him. Having paſſed the road, he came to the ſprings. Now had not the Erineos, the projecting tower, and the great tower of Ilion, been on the right of the road, coming from Troy, the chariot-road would not have been in the way of a perſon running towards the ſprings; and without ſuch a diſpoſition, the track of Hector would be incomprehenſible. Achilles approached from the banks of Scamander on the left of the road from Troy, whither he had been led by Apollo under the diſguiſe of Agenor. Hector was leaning againſt a tower on the right of the road, and ſuffered Achilles to get nearer the Scæan gate than himſelf, before his courage forſook him; and had not this been the caſe, the way to ſecurity in the city muſt always have been open to the Trojan chief. Achilles, in this purſuit, having once placed himſelf nearer the wall than his opponent, had a ſmaller circle to move in, and conſequently eaſily prevented the approach of Hector to the walls, which he attempted three times, in hopes that his friends would be able to pierce Achilles with miſſile weapons from the battlements. It is neceſſary to obſerve, that, according to the poet, Hector did not turn till he had paſſed the ſprings the firſt time, when directing his courſe towards the wall he was prevented by Achilles, who obliged him to retrace his ſteps. On the approach of Hector to the walls in the ſecond circuit, Achilles intercepted him again. Being thus compelled to purſue his original courſe, Hector paſſed the fountains a third time, and after making a third and fruitleſs eſſay to place himſelf under the protection of the fortifications, he returned to the ſprings, reſolved to try the fortune of a combat with the enemy. It has been generally ſuppoſed that Hector was purſued by Achilles thrice round the walls of Troy, and was afterwards dragged three times round the whole circle of the fortifications by the enraged conqueror. Achilles, however, having ſlain his adverſary, conſidered for a moment whether he ſhould not at that inſtant attack the city, and endeavour to take it while the Trojans were in the greateſt conſternation; but having quickly recollected that the manes of Patroclus were unappeaſed, he gave up all idea of immediate conqueſt, and haſtened back to the fleet, dragging after him the body of the Trojan chief. The teſtimony of Homer, therefore, is poſitively contradictory to the prevailing idea. It ſeems equally contrary to probability that the heroes

ſhould have run thrice round the city; for ſuch a flight muſt, at the leaſt, have employed two hours, as the city cannot be ſuppoſed to have been leſs than four miles in circumference on account of the population, and Achilles muſt have paſſed over a ſpace equal to twenty-four miles, if the fact was true. It is alſo highly improbable that the Trojans ſhould have neglected to intercept Achilles, alone and unattended by his Myrmidons, as he muſt have been, during the purſuit round three ſides of the city, when a thouſand men might have been detached on the ſervice without the poſſibility of failure. Achilles, too, muſt have been poſſeſſed of leſs ſwiftneſs or leſs wiſdom than he is allowed by Homer, if, being nearer the fortifications than Hector, and having the power of turning him from the wall, the Trojan was ever permitted to leave that ſide of the city next the plain. Homer makes uſe of the word περι, which is the only authority for the flight of Hector round the city. Now Hector was thrice turned round by Achilles under the walls, as has been before ſhewn, and without dwelling on the very great reſemblance between the words around and near in the Greek language, it is fair to ſtate that the περι in the flight of Hector no more ſignifies round about, than it does in the ſixth book of the Iliad, where the Greeks are ſaid to be fighting "περι αστυ," around the city, while they are poſitively and confeſſedly in the plain." p. 81—84.

In the Acropolis, Mr. Gell found a tumulus, which he ſuppoſes to be that of Hector. In plate 36, another long view comprehends the moſt remarkable ſcenery in the plains of Troy, ſeen from the Acropolis. Plate 37 ſhows the veſtiges of walls on the ſummit of the hill.

"The citadel was called Pergamos, or Pergama, and was decorated with many palaces and temples. Among others was the palace of Hector. The royal palace alſo ſtood in the fortreſs, and muſt have been an edifice of conſiderable magnitude, for it was built round a court, and ornamented with colonnades. On one ſide were fifty chambers, appropriated to the princes, and on the other, twelve lodgings, occupied by the ladies of the reigning family. The fabric was built with poliſhed ſtone. The palace of Alexander was alſo in the Acropolis, and was a magnificent ſtructure, erected under the direction of that prince, by architects of the greateſt ſkill. It was ſituated near thoſe of Priam and Hector.

"It is remarkable that theſe architects are ſaid by Homer to have been at that time dwelling in Troy. They were, in all probability, Sidonians; for we find, on another occaſion, that when robes of the moſt beautiful workmanſhip are required, recourſe is had to ſuch as were painted by the ſkilful hands of the Sidonian women, whom Alexander himſelf had brought by ſea from that country. There was alſo a temple of Minerva in the citadel, with a ſtatue of the goddeſs in a ſitting poſture; for Hecuba is deſcribed in the ſixth book as placing a rich veil on her knees. There was a ſumptuous temple of Apollo, the tutelary deity of Ilium, believed to have been built

built by the god himſelf. There is reaſon to ſuppoſe that there was alſo a temple of Jupiter, much frequented by Hector. If it ſhould be objected that ſuch a multiplicity of edifices could never have exiſted in ſo ſmall a ſpace as the ſummit of the hill Bounarbaſhi, it will only be neceſſary to give an example in the Acropolis or Cecropia of Athens, where a much greater proportion of edifices might be found, ſome of them, beyond all compariſon, more magnificent and extenſive than thoſe of Troy. Theſe were incloſed within an ellipſe, eight hundred feet in length, and not half that number of feet in breadth, and conſiſted of the Hall of Paintings, the Propylæa, the temple of Victory, the magnificent temple of Minerva Parthenos, more than two hundred feet in length, the temples of Neptune, Minerva Polias, and Pandroſa; to which may be added thoſe of Venus and Agraulos, the daughter of one of the Athenian kings. It is evident, therefore, that the edifices mentioned by Homer, or indeed twice their number, might have been placed on the ground in queſtion, which is of much greater extent than the Cecropia. The length of the Pergama, from eaſt to weſt, is not far ſhort of four hundred yards, and the breadth is about half that number. The hill, however, is ſo completely covered with thorns in ſome parts, that I found it impoſſible, without aſſiſtance, to be accurate in the meaſurement of it. To the eaſtward of the foundations ſeen in this view, is a ſmall pit, and round it are other ſtones, evidently not diſpoſed by chance. It will be obſerved that the foreground riſes a little on the left, and the ſummit of that elevation will be ſhewn in a ſucceeding view. On the right, the Pergama is fringed with buſhes, over the tops of which is ſeen the rugged mountain beyond the Simoeis, and, ſtill more diſtant, the Kallicolone, or hill of Atche Kevi."

Two plans, one of the hill of Bounarbaſhi, the other of the plain of Troy, together with their explanations, conclude the work.

We have made larger extracts than uſual from this ſuperb work, becauſe its high price muſt preclude many readers from enjoying the entertainment which it affords. It ought to find a place in every claſſical library.

ART. CLXXXIX. *Eſſays, Literary, Political, and Œconomical. By John Gardiner, M.D.* 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 1100. Price 16 *s.* Conſtable, Edinburgh. 1803.

THE ſubjects of theſe eſſays are of conſiderable importance, and in general Dr. Gardiner has treated them with ability and preciſion. The firſt volume contains conjectures on the origin of language, and on the different races of men; an eſſay on the formation of the minds of children, previous to a literary

literary education; and one on the cauſes that promote or retard population.

Various have been the theories with regard to the origin of language; ſome authors have contended that it came by divine inſpiration, while others with Dr. Gardiner reject the neceſſity of ſuch a ſuppoſition. Theſe maintain that the Creator has been more benevolent than could be inferred from ſuch an hypotheſis, by endowing man with a degree of intellect, ſufficient to enable him not only to invent language, but to accompliſh ſuch things as in former ages would have been thought impoſſible.

We are aware of the ſeveral difficulties which attach to each of theſe hypotheſes; and the arguments which our author produces to ſhew that language cannot claim an immediately divine origin, are more forcible, than thoſe which he advances in defence of his own theory: hence we have a ſtriking inſtance of the truth of a well known maxim, "that it is much eaſier to pull down one ſyſtem than to rear another." It cannot be denied that the imperfections which may be traced in any language, and its ſlow progreſs to improvement, militate againſt the ſuppoſition, that it was an immediate gift from Heaven. We likewiſe feel the force of the argument adduced by Dr. G. againſt this opinion, from the want of univerſality in any language. But is the difficulty leſs when we ſet about to inquire how it originated upon natural principles? we know that children acquire it from imitation; that thoſe born deaf, and who are incapable of ſpeech by any imitative proceſs, never ſpeak; how, then, was language invented by the earlieſt inhabitants of our globe, who had no inſtructors, and no examples to imitate? let us ſee in what manner this obſtacle is removed by the author before us, and then leave our readers to weigh the force of his reaſoning for themſelves.

Dr. G. ſuppoſes two perſons, male and female, juſt brought into exiſtence, without language, but with the requiſite qualifications for the formation of ſpeech: and he aſſumes that,

"Among the firſt exertions of the mind, is an *inſtinctive* deſire of expreſſing our thoughts by articulate ſounds, which is natural to man; but the practice of it is an art, and the words comprehending the ſeveral parts of ſpeech are arbitrary, from which have ariſen the various languages in different parts of the world. But the advancement in language muſt be ſlow, eſpecially if we reſtrict the ſociety to two perſons, though it will ſoon be ſufficient to expreſs their ideas and their wants, which in ſuch a ſtate muſt be few: for I have no difficulty in ſuppoſing men, ſoon after their creation, to be extremely ſolicitous to form and acquire language for communicating their thoughts."

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If theſe ſuppoſitions be admitted, the reaſoning contained in this eſſay ſeems undeniable; but the advocates for a contrary theory will not admit the inſtinctive principle aſſumed, or will probably think the ſhade of difference is too indeterminate between the inſtinct of Dr. Gardiner, and the inſpiration of his opponents. All will, however, probably agree with our author in what he ſays reſpecting the ſlow progreſs in the improvement of language:

"If the conſtitution of any language is examined with attention, by a perſon of thought and reflection, it will be found to be a work of art, in the formation of which, great ingenuity, as well as judgement, muſt have been employed. For the nice grammatical formation of a complete regular language, from eight parts of ſpeech, as in the Greek and Latin, and moſt of our modern tongues, muſt always impreſs us with an idea of its being the greateſt, as well as the moſt uſeful art, to which human knowledge can arrive: the attainment of it, however, muſt always appear to be a work of almoſt inſuperable difficulty. But whoever ſeriouſly contemplates the very gradual progreſs of language for many centuries, before it acquires its utmoſt degree of perfection, will ceaſe to wonder at the difficulty with which he at firſt ſuppoſed language to be ſo artfully framed. Like the diviſion of labour, in a complex manufacture, which no one man could execute, it is by degrees brought to perfection, by the united induſtry of many hands. But in the invention, gradual formation, and improvement of a language, how great muſt have been the diviſion of labour; how many ages muſt have paſſed from the firſt creation of men; and how many millions muſt have ſucceeded one another, and, in every generation of them, ſeveral men of capacity, of genius, contributing each their mite towards the perfecting of their vernacular tongue! In taking this juſt view of the ſlow progreſs of language, our idea of the great difficulty of its formation vaniſhes, for the little that any individual might contribute towards the improvement of his vernacular tongue, would rather be a pleaſure than a labour, as it would mark him for a man of diſcernment. This is ſomewhat more than conjecture; for it is ſcarcely poſſible to conceive by what other means language could arrive at that degree of correctneſs and regularity in which it exiſts, in ſeveral parts of the world where the art of writing is ſtill unknown."

With this eſſay on the origin of language is connected the next, "On the different races of men." In reaſoning on this ſubject, Dr. G. maintains that there have been different creations of men; in proof of which, he appeals to the obſervations of voyagers and travellers, a plan which was purſued by Lord Kaimes in his Sketches of the Hiſtory of Man. Aware of the prejudices which exiſt againſt this hypotheſis, our author ſays, "It affords me a moſt ſingular ſatisfaction, that what I have ſaid on the different generations of men, militates not,

not, in the ſmalleſt degree, againſt the hiſtory given by Moſes of the progeny of Adam and Eve, from whom the Hebrews appear to have ſprung." And in another part of his preface he ſays, "The ſuppoſition of different creations of men is ſo conſonant to the other works of Providence, which, in every part of creation, delights in variety, that it is ſomewhat aſtoniſhing it has not hitherto gained more credit." The method adopted by Dr. G. in reconciling his theory to the Scripture hiſtory, is very plauſible; and his arguments drawn from the animal and vegetable kingdoms, are deſerving the attention of perſons who too readily condemn thoſe that venture out of the beaten tract. We do not think the reaſoning in this eſſay carries with it the conviction of certainty, but it evidences the traits of a liberal mind attached to the truth, and deſirous of ſerving the cauſe of rational inquiry.

The third eſſay in this volume, "On the Formation of the Minds of Children previous to a Literary Education," contains much ſound advice on topics practically uſeful. Few young married people, with the proſpect of a riſing family, can fail of reaping advantage from the careful peruſal of the pages devoted to this ſubject. Dr. Gardiner extends his obſervations to the earlieſt periods of infancy: his directions relate to the management of new-born children, and to the beſt methods of bringing them up with a proper degree of hardineſs. Some of the rules laid down by this judicious writer are peculiarly adapted to North Britain; but in general his advice may be acted upon in all ſituations and circumſtances. With regard to vigour of conſtitution, he ſays,

"Could I have influence enough to perſuade the public, that hardineſs with children ought not to be attempted, while in arms, nor for ſome years after, I am confident, that the number of children in the bills of mortality would leſſen conſiderably. It is catarrhs or colds, moſt of which might be prevented, that are the origin of many of the diſeaſes which prove fatal. A fit of teething is uſually the conſequence of every cold, caught after the commencement of the fifth month; whereas, moſt children cut their teeth eaſily, who are kept free from colds till they are two years of age. The prevention of catarrhs, in children, I conſider as the chief means of preſerving the natural ſtrength of their conſtitution, and of rendering them more capable of reſiſting the effects of diſeaſes, when they come to be attacked by them."

Dr. Gardiner, aware not only of the inexperience of young mothers, but alſo of the prejudices of thoſe who uſually attend upon children during the firſt weeks of infancy, gives explicit rules on the article of clothing, which, according to his opinion, ought not to be very ſcanty;—on the temperature of the water with

with which infants ſhould be daily waſhed;—on the article of diet;—and the changes in it neceſſary during the ſeveral periods of the firſt two years. Theſe directions are not the mere dictates of ſuperior knowledge; the author gives reaſons for every rule that he lays down, which in our eſtimation are ſuch as to merit the attention of parents in general.

Having taken care of the conſtitution, Dr. G. proceeds to the culture of the mind. In this part we meet with no wild theories, but a detail of ſober reaſoning, founded, apparently, on experience, and on an accurate knowledge of human nature. We wiſh indeed that this whole eſſay, which is of indefinitely more practical utility than the other parts of the volumes, could be printed in a ſeparate form, ſo as to obtain a more general circulation. We could fill many pages with extracts from it, but we ſhall copy only a part of what is ſaid upon the neceſſity of inculcating the love of truth in the minds of the young:

"As ſoon as a child can ſpeak, our firſt leſſon ought to be a veneration for truth, which is the foundation of all religion, of all moral duties, the ſupport of every ſocial virtue, and of confidence in every tranſaction in which man engages. When this cardinal quality comes to be unalterably fixed in the mind, it never fails to confer on the perſon ſuch a degree of courage, reſolution, firm and generous independence, and ſuch a contempt of every advantage that could be obtained, or of every diſadvantage that might be avoided, by the ſacrifice of truth, as to render him truly reſpectable; for it is the higheſt ornament of a great ſoul. However great a man's abilities may be; if accompanied with falſehood, he can never command your eſteem; which you readily beſtow on others of meaner parts, and perhaps, in poverty, but in whom you know truth conſtantly to dwell. This divine attribute muſt be conſidered as intimately connected with every ſpecies of virtue, one grain of which, in an extenſive ſenſe, is of greater value in the ſight of God and of reaſon, than all the maſs of intellect in the world united in one perſon, if accompanied with falſehood."

The next ſubject treated on in theſe volumes, is one which has lately very much engaged the public attention, viz. "On the Cauſes that promote or retard Population." The principal propoſition laid down as the baſis of this eſſay is, "That the quantity of proviſions, of labour, and the degree of freedom enjoyed by the inhabitants, regulate the population of every country." In proof of this, Dr. Gardiner enters into many miſcellaneous topics, ſome of which can ſcarcely be ſaid to have any bearing on the ſubject; in each of the ſections of this tract, indeed, the author goes conſiderably more into detail than was abſolutely neceſſary to illuſtrate the points under diſcuſſion. The ſubjects are, however, of conſiderable

conſiderable importance, and Dr. G. has exhibited in his view of them a general and extenſive knowledge: the reader, therefore, will, in a great meaſure, be compenſated for the want of ſtrict logical deductions, by much miſcellaneous information, with regard to the national debt, and its effects on commerce;—to the progreſſive improvement of agriculture, and means of its increaſe;—to the miſchievous effects of entails;—and to the advantages of a free commerce, and of compenſation for tithes: two ſections relate to the proviſions for the poor, and to foundling hoſpitals; and the laſt contains conjectures on the population of this country at different periods, from the firſt invaſion of Julius Cæſar to the preſent time.

In ſpeaking of the proviſion made for the poor, among many excellent obſervations, the author ſays, "The number of indigent poor, in every ſtate, will keep pace (he means in the inverſe ratio) with the degree of piety, morality, and induſtry, in which the lower claſſes of the people have been educated." This we admit as an incontrovertible axiom, and on that account, among others, we have recommended Dr. G.'s eſſay on education; for we are fully aware that habits of morality and induſtry, acquired in childhood and youth, form the mind of the future man to virtue, and make him deteſt the mean and baſe mind of a beggar. Illuſtrative of this ſentiment, Dr. G. obſerves;

"The effects of education and habit in the Dutch, are remarkable. From their childhood, they are trained up in the practice of induſtry, ſobriety, and frugality, which enables them to ſupport themſelves in almoſt any ſituation. They are remarked for this, in every corner of the world. A Dutch family will earn a ſubſiſtence, where another would ſtarve. There are, of courſe, few beggars in the Dutch provinces; and there, a greater degree of diſgrace and ignominy attends the baſe trade of a beggar, than in moſt other countries. The reverſe of this, is the deſpicable begging race in Spain, who are encouraged, and their numbers increaſed, by the daily alms diſtributed at the palaces of the dignified clergy, monaſteries, and alms-houſes, and from induſtry not being, in that country, properly encouraged. This exceſs of charity, ſo hurtful to every ſpecies of induſtry, and to ſociety in general, is not peculiar to Spain; it is greater in Roman Catholic than in Proteſtant countries; but exiſts more or leſs in every Chriſtian State."

The author then proceeds to point out the cauſes which produce an exceſs of charity; and in connection with this we refer the reader back again (p. 243—250.) to ſome admirable obſervations on the character and motives of thoſe who chooſe rather to depend on the benevolence of others, than on their own induſtry for ſupport. We enter cordially into Dr. G.'s feelings on this

this ſubject; we have known perſons, pretending to poſſeſs conſiderable genius and talents, ſpurn the paths of honourable induſtry, and aſſume a ſpecies of inſolent independence, while they are living upon the ill-beſtowed bounty of their friends.

The remaining eſſays which make up the ſecond volume, are; *firſt*, Hiſtorical Remarks on Government, and the cauſes which have obſtructed its advancement to a free conſtitution; and, *ſecondly*, Obſervations on the Cauſes which promote or retard the advancement of Literature, Commerce, and the Arts.

On the ſubject of Government, Dr. Gardiner thinks with independence, and writes with ſpirit; his object is evidently to prove that the Conſtitution of this country is ſuperior to that of any other hitherto eſtabliſhed in any part of the world; with this view, he examines the principal political occurrences of our hiſtory; and the conſtitutions of the ancient and modern Republics, from which he ſhews the abſurdity of endeavouring to ſubſtitute a Republic in room of the Britiſh Conſtitution. Through the whole of this eſſay our author exhibits the character of a conſiſtent politician; he is aware of the defects which may be found in the form of Government under which we live; but he contends, as every rational man will, that laws and practices of long ſtanding, though not the beſt poſſible, ſhould be altered with caution and circumſpection. He is an enemy to Univerſal Suffrage, and indeed to any material change in the nature of our repreſentation; in comparing the modes of electing members of parliament in England and Scotland, he gives a decided preference to the latter, as the leaſt expenſive, and productive of the leaſt inconvenience. We muſt confeſs, that on this ſubject he goes much farther than we are diſpoſed to follow him; for, according to his notions, the repreſentation of the people is nothing; and notwithſtanding the evils which attend popular elections, which we feel and deplore, as much as any perſon, yet the remedy which Dr. G.'s theory leads to, would probably produce ſtill greater evils.

If, however, there be ſome few things in which we cannot exactly accord with this writer, in the main we look upon his political opinions as perfectly orthodox; in ſome inſtances, his fears ſeem to carry him away beyond the bounds of reaſon; and we truſt there is no ſuch diſpoſition to innovation, and revolutionary practices, as he dreads. His notions of the neceſſity of ſubordination, though not poſſeſſing any degree of novelty, cannot be too frequently inculcated:—

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"Till men are created with a perfect equality of talents, genius, and disposition, there must necessarily be a difference of rank and power; and, if from the creation of the world Providence has uniformly established a subordination among men, by bestowing upon them different degrees of intellectual power, then all endeavours to counteract this wise design, is to act contrary to what was instituted for our happiness. It may be objected, that all tyrannies, under whatever form they may have existed, have constantly supported a subordination, with a strictness proportioned to the tyranny exercised in the state. But we must consider that abuse of power we call tyranny, as a circumstance superadded to the form of government, without which it may undoubtedly exist; but it is equally certain, that no government can possibly subsist without subordination."

Thus our author endeavours to hold an even hand between the ill effects of democracy on the one side, and of arbitrary power on the other: he reprobates every species of despotism, as destructive of the happiness and prosperity of those countries in which they are exercised: and in the last essay, he illustrates this doctrine by particular examples of their effects on individuals and states: he shews that a free constitution is favourable to commerce, literature, and the arts; while despotism benumbs the human faculties, and debases the mind.

Having already taken so much space in considering the contents of these volumes, we shall conclude with an observation or two on the defects of the style, which we have noticed in some parts. These indeed bear but a small proportion to the many excellencies which we have pointed out, but they ought not to be totally overlooked.—In the first paragraph, p. 11, an inaccuracy is very evident; whom does the author mean when he says, "which *those men* have suggested;" no persons having been previously mentioned, though it is clear he refers in his own mind to those who have written on language? We object also to the word *savagism*, made use of more than once;—to the phrase, "*to expiscate the truth*:"—the word "*versant*," used for *conversant* in both volumes, is no improvement in our language: the word *co*temporary is not now tolerated by good writers: "notwithstanding, however, *of* my solicitude," is a very awkward phrase. We might have enlarged this list: but from these few hints we doubt not the author will, in a future edition, make the requisite alterations.

ART. CXC. *An Account of the Engliſh Colony in New South Wales, from its firſt Settlement in January* 1788, *to Auguſt* 1801; *with Remarks on the Diſpoſitions, Cuſtoms, Manners, &c. of the native Inhabitants of that Country. To which are added, ſome Particulars of New Zealand; compiled, by Permiſſion, from the MSS. of Lieutenant Governor King: and an Account of a Voyage performed by Captain Flinders and Mr. Baſs; by which the Exiſtence of a Strait, ſeparating Van Diemen's Land from the Continent of New Holland, was aſcertained. Abſtracted from the Journal of Mr. Baſs. By Lieutenant Colonel Collins, of the Royal Marines; ſeveral Years Judge Advocate and Secretary of the Colony, and now Lieutenant Governor of Port Philip. Illuſtrated by numerous Engravings. The Second Edition.* 4to. pp. 562. pr. 2l. 12s. 6d. Cadell and Davies, London. 1804.

THE moſt difficult problem in the ſcience of politics appears to be, How to render the puniſhment of offenders productive of the greateſt poſſible good, or, rather, of the leaſt poſſible harm to the State. Nor is it the moſt difficult merely, but alſo the moſt important queſtion which can occupy the thoughts of thoſe who are intruſted with the direction and government of ſo many of their fellow-creatures. But, notwithſtanding the ſurpriſing improvement of mankind in every other ſpecies of knowledge; notwithſtanding they have explored the moſt ſecret properties of matter, the inmoſt receſſes of the underſtanding; diſcovered unknown countries; and applied the powers of nature to the moſt beneficial uſes; yet, in the art of government, that art which ſo directly and immediately applies to the happineſs of human beings, very little progreſs, comparatively, has been made. By the art of government it is obvious that we do not mean the knowledge of external relations, the fineſſe and tricks of diplomacy, ſkill in acquiring dominion, or experience in the arts of applying domeſtic reſources to the annoyance of enemies; but, the art of managing men as moral agents, of improving their faculties, extending their comforts, promoting habits of induſtry, economy, and other domeſtic and ſocial virtues. This art is peculiarly and intimately connected with a wiſe formation and juſt adminiſtration of the penal code. According as this is well or ill regulated, the happineſs of the offenders themſelves, of their various connections and relations, of thoſe who may ſuffer by their crimes or be led aſtray by their example, muſt neceſſarily be increaſed or diminiſhed. And in proportion as the labour of theſe ſeveral individuals may be directed to purpoſes of utility or injury, ſociety at large is a gainer or loſer. Let us for a moment take the caſe of one man, trained up in the habits of induſtry, employing his faculties inceſſantly

to ſome beneficial purpoſe, inſtructing a numerous family to tread in his ſteps, and ſetting a fair example of honeſt labour and domeſtic comfort to thoſe in a ſimilar claſs of life.—Then let us view an unhappy man, early addicted to bad courſes, indulging his riotous and licentious propenſities by continual acts of fraud and depredation, training his family in the ſame wretched habits, and ſeducing all within the ſphere of his exertions to purſue the ſame conduct.—Calculate the good enjoyed, or the injury received, by ſo many members of the ſtate, and, conſequently, by the ſtate itſelf, from the oppoſite conduct of two individuals merely: and then look over the ſad liſt of criminals who, in our ſeveral courts of judicature in any one year, receive the puniſhment allotted to their various offences. In a word, caſt your eyes over the pages of the hiſtory which now preſents itſelf for examination;—ſee hundreds, nay thouſands, of offenders gathered in one diſtant iſland; conſider the influence they muſt have had upon the comfort and virtue of ſo many other individuals; and then reflect of what conſequence it would have been, had their crimes been prevented, and of what conſequence it ſtill is that their puniſhment ſhould lead to reformation.

It is true that ſpeculations of this nature form no part of the contents in the book before us. The author confines himſelf to a detail of circumſtances which have taken place in the eſtabliſhment of the colony in New South Wales, and merely propoſes to give a regular and particular account of the incidents that occurred during his continuance in it. As an officer employed by the government, he has moſt properly laid before his readers a ſtatement of facts, with occaſional obſervations relating to the methods purſued in executing this important ſcheme of colonization; but he has wiſely abſtained from all ſpeculative remarks upon the principles from which the ſcheme originated. Yet in the facts which he has thus brought forward with ſo much diſcretion, he has ſupplied topics of deep and important ſpeculation; in which view, more particularly, we conſider this work as extremely valuable.

Here then we are furniſhed with a minute, and, we have every reaſon to believe, a faithful narration of every important incident which took place in the New Colony during the ſpace of thoſe eight years in which our author himſelf reſided in it:

——— quæque ipſe miſerrima vidit,
Et quorum pars magna fuit.

The account is continued down, though not ſo minutely, through a period of five years more; and ſome particulars are added

added concerning the adjacent colony in Norfolk Iſland, and alſo concerning a voyage undertaken in order to aſcertain more accurately the geographical poſition of the vaſt iſland in which the principal ſettlements have been eſtabliſhed. It is therefore to be conſidered as a hiſtory of an experiment in the adminiſtration of penal laws, undertaken upon a ſcale more grand and more expenſive than any which has hitherto been attempted by any ſtateſman. The future hiſtorian, therefore, has here, provided for him, a body of materials of infinite importance, not only as it furniſhes the moſt authentic particulars of the period to which it relates, but as it ſupplies a meritorious example to thoſe who may in future be placed in ſituations of truſt in the new colony. We ſay, the future hiſtorian; for, as the eſtabliſhment muſt yet be regarded in its infancy, it might ſeem raſh and uncandid to hazard a decided opinion upon the ſucceſs of this ſurpriſing experiment. Thus much only we may be allowed to ſay, that a plan by which ſo many criminals muſt be neceſſarily aſſociated together; where the uſual checks which a ſtate of civilization impoſes upon crimes are neceſſarily wanting; and where a ſenſe of common intereſt would lead them to a ſenſe of their common ſtrength; did not *à priori* ſeem to yield any very encouraging proſpects: —and that the actual reſult of the experiment, ſo far as it is related in the pages before us, has not yet realized the hopes of thoſe who employed this ſpecies of puniſhment as the means of reformation.

Having thus ſhewn the particular point of view under which we conceive this book ſhould be examined, in order to aſcertain its real value, we may add that it has alſo other and ſingular merits. It not only contains materials for meditation to the moraliſt, the philoſopher, and the ſtateſman; but it is adapted for the peruſal of thoſe whoſe eye paſſes over a page without accumulating a ſtore for ſubſequent reflection. The ſuperficial reader will here find a repaſt ſuited to his peculiar taſte.

Beſide the common topics occurring in voyages and travels, the foundation of a colony under ſuch peculiar circumſtances muſt needs be attended with details attractive by their variety and ſingularity. The ſudden appearance of a town from a wood where human foot had never trodden; the manner in which the want of implements, and even artificers, was occaſionally ſupplied; the diſtreſs, from ſcarcity of proviſions; the intercourſe of the natives with the new ſettlers, their manners and habits;—theſe and ſimilar ſubjects, related generally in an unadorned and eaſy ſtyle, will ſcarcely fail to ſupply amuſement to the curious, and inſtruction to the pro-

found. Without further preface, we proceed to ſelect a few particulars from a great variety which attracted our notice as we peruſed the volume, and ſhall then conclude with a few general remarks.

June, 1788. "Exemplary puniſhments ſeemed about this period to be growing daily more neceſſary. Stock was often killed, huts and tents broke open, and proviſion conſtantly ſtolen, particularly about the latter end of the week; as many of thoſe unthrifty people, taking no care to huſband their proviſions through the ſeven days that they were intended to laſt them, had conſumed the whole by the end of the third or fourth day. One of this deſcription made his week's allowance of flour (eight pounds) into cakes, which he devoured at one meal; he was ſoon after taken ſpeechleſs and ſenſeleſs, and died the following day, a loathſome putrid object.

"The obvious conſequence of this want of economy, was, that he who conſumed his weeks allowance in three days, muſt ſteal from thoſe who had been more provident. Had a few perſons been ſent out, who were not of the deſcription of convicts, to have acted as overſeers or ſuperintendants, regulations for their internal economy, as well in the articles of clothing as proviſions, might have been formed which would have prevented theſe evils: it would then too have been more practicable to detect them in ſelling or exchanging the ſlops which they received, and then proviſions would have been ſubject to daily inſpection. But overſeers drawn from among themſelves were found not to have that influence which was abſolutely neceſſary to carry any regulation into effect. It was not for want of having their duty pointed out to them, or the certain conſequences in which a breach of it would involve them, that they tranſgreſſed; but many among them were ſo inured to habits of vice, and ſo callous to remonſtrance, that they were only reſtrained until a favourable opportunity preſented itſelf." (p. 31.)

"January, 1789. "For fifteen days in this month the thermometer roſe in the ſhade above eighty degrees: once (on the 8th) at one in the afternoon, it ſtood at 105° in the ſhade." (p. 47.)

In the month of April, in the ſame year, it was found that the ſmall-pox was making great ravages among the natives: "Whether it had ever appeared among them before, could not be diſcovered; but it was certain that they gave it a name (gal-gal-la); a circumſtance which ſeemed to indicate a preacquaintance with it." (p. 58.) We ſhall be happy to learn that meaſures have been long ſince adopted for the introduction of the vaccine diſorder, both among the coloniſts and native inhabitants of this vaſt country.

"On July the 14th, the governor returned from his ſecond viſit to the river, which he named the Hawkeſbury, in honour of the noble Lord of that name. He traced the river a conſiderable diſtance to the weſtward, and was impeded in his farther progreſs by a ſhallow

a ſhallow which he met with, a ſhort diſtance above the hill formerly ſeen, and then named by him Richmond Hill, to the foot of which the courſe of the Hawkeſbury conducted him and his party. They were deterred from remaining any time in the narrow part of the river, as they perceived evident traces of the freſhes having riſen to the height of from twenty to forty feet above the level of the water. They repreſented the windings of the river as beautiful and picturesque; and toward Richmond Hill the face of the country appeared more level and open than in any other part. The vaſt inundations, which had left ſuch tokens behind them of the height to which they ſwell the river, ſeemed rather unfavourable to the purpoſe of ſettling near the banks, which otherwiſe would have been convenient and deſirable; the advantages attending the occupation of an allotment of land on the margin of a freſh-water river being ſuperior to thoſe of any other ſituation. The ſoil on the banks of the river was judged to be light; what it was farther inland, could not be determined with any certainty, as the travellers did not penetrate to any diſtance, except at Richmond Hill, where the ſoil appeared to be leſs mixed with ſand than that on the branches.

"On viſiting the ſettlement of Roſe-Hill, the convicts were all found reſiding in very good huts, apparently under proper regulations, and encouraged to work in the gardens, which they had permiſſion to cultivate during ſuch hours as were not dedicated to public labour. A barrack for the ſoldiers was erected in the ſmall redoubt which had been conſtructed, and in which alſo ſtood the proviſion ſtore. Some ground had been opened on the other ſide of the ſtream of water which ran into the creek, where a ſmall houſe had been built for the ſuperintendant, under whoſe charge were to be placed a barn and granaries, in which the produce of the ground then filling with wheat and barley, was to be depoſited. The people of all deſcriptions continued very healthy; and the ſalubrity of the climate rendered medicine of little uſe."—P. 62.

This account of the healthineſs of the climate we are happy to find confirmed in other parts of the volume; and, in this reſpect, the views of thoſe who propoſed the eſtabliſhment of the colony, appear to have been directed wiſely. In page 150. we meet with the following ſingular inſtance of wretched ignorance, combined with the love of independence ſo natural to the human mind:

"On the firſt day of November, information was received from Parramatta, that a body of twenty male convicts and one female, of thoſe lately arrived in the Queen tranſport from Ireland, each taking a week's proviſions, and armed with tomahawks and knives, had abſconded from that ſettlement, with the chimerical idea of walking to China, or of finding ſome country wherein they would be received and entertained without labour. It was generally ſuppoſed, however, that this improbable tale was only a cover to the real deſign, which might be to procure boats, and get on board the tranſports after they had left the cove. An officer from Parramatta,

with a party, was immediately sent in pursuit of them, who traced them as far down the harbour as Lane Cove, whence he reached the settlement of Sydney, without obtaining any further intelligence of them. A few days afterward, the people in a boat belonging to the Albemarle transport, which had been down the harbour to procure wood on the North shore, met with the wretched female who had accompanied the men. She had been separated from them for three days, and wandered by herself, entirely ignorant of her situation, until she came to the water-side, where, fortunately, she soon after met the boat. Boats were sent down the next day, and the woman's husband was found and taken back to the settlement. They both gave the same absurd account of their design as before related, and appeared to have suffered very considerably by fatigue, hunger, and heat. The man had lost his companions eight-and-forty hours before he was himself discovered; and no tidings of them were received for several days, although boats were constantly sent into the North-west arm, and the lower part of the harbour.

"Three of these miserable people were some time after met by some officers who were on an excursion to the lagoon, between the harbour and Broken Bay; but, notwithstanding their situation, they did not readily give themselves up; and, when questioned, said that they wanted nothing more than to live free from labour. These people were sent up to Parramatta, whence, regardless of what they had experienced, and might again suffer, they a second time absconded in a few days after they had returned. Parties were immediately dispatched, and thirteen of those who first absconded were brought in, in a state of deplorable wretchedness, naked, and nearly worn out with hunger. Some of them had subsisted chiefly by sucking the flowering shrubs and wild berries of the woods; and the whole exhibited a picture of misery that seemed sufficient to deter others from the like extravagant folly. The practice of flying from labour into the woods still prevailing, the governor caused all the convicts who had arrived that year to be assembled; when he informed them of his determination to put a stop to their absconding, by sending out parties with orders to fire upon them whenever they should be met with; and he declared, that if any were brought in alive, he would either land them on a part of the harbour where they could not depart, or chain them together, with only bread and water for their subsistence, during the remainder of their terms of transportation. He likewise told them of information which he had received, that they intended to arm themselves and seize upon the stores; but if they did make an attempt of that kind, every man who might be taken should be instantly put to death. Having thus endeavoured to impress them with ideas of certain punishment if they offended in future, he forgave some for small offences, exhorted them to go cheerfully to their labour, and changed their hours of work, agreeable to a request which they had made."—P. 150.

It

It does not appear that theſe threats were enforced; but rather operated as a ſalutary warning to theſe unhappy and deluded people. In fact, we are perſuaded that nothing could have given ſo much pain to Governor Phillip, as the neceſſity of having recourſe to ſuch rigorous meaſures. His humanity, as well as firmneſs, are conſpicuous upon ſeveral occaſions: and from the account which we are enabled to collect of his diſpoſition and conduct, he was admirably calculated for the ſituation to which he was appointed. Upon the prudent choice of a principal officer, much, almoſt every thing, depended, in the formation of ſuch an eſtabliſhment. Nor could the choice have been juſtified more completely than by the unwearied attention and conſummate judgment of the perſon ſelected. It is ſtated, that his ſervices have been rewarded with a penſion of £500. per annum. So far as we are enabled to judge of his merits from the various details * contained in the volume before us, we ſhould be inclined to pronounce that his ſervices could ſcarcely be eſtimated too highly. His name, indeed, will not be blazoned amidſt the records of trophies won or kingdoms recovered; but if we conſider the intrinſic and perſonal value of actions, diveſted of all external and concomitant appendages of fortune and companions, where even is the warrior, whoſe labour of mind and body, and whoſe individual claims upon his country, may be ſaid to outweigh the inceſſant and patient exertion of Governor Phillip during a ſpace of four years, in a ſituation completely new, amidſt difficulties the moſt formidable, and with tempers the moſt untutored and ſtubborn?—"Nam bellicas laudes ſolent quidem extenuare verbis, eaſque detrahere ducibus, communicare cum militibus, ne propriæ ſint imperatorum; et certe in armis, militum virtus, locorum opportunitas, auxilia ſociorum, claſſes, commeatus multum juvant; maximam vero partem quaſi ſuo jure fortuna ſibi vindicat, et quicquid eſt proſpere geſtum, id pene omne ducit ſuum. At vero hujus gloriæ, quam ex paulo ante adeptus, ſocium habes neminem; totum hoc quantumcunque eſt, quod certe maximum eſt, totum eſt, inquam, tuum; nihil ſibi ex iſtâ laude Centurio, nihil Præfectus, nihil cohors, nihil turma decerpit: quin etiam illa ipſa rerum humanarum domina Fortuna in iſtius ſe ſocietatem gloriæ non offert; tibi cedit; tuam eſſe totam, et propriam fatetur; nunquam enim temeritas cum ſapientiâ commiſcetur, nec ad conſilium caſus admittitur."—Cicero pro M. Marcello.

* His anxiety to conciliate the natives, and to protect them from every ſpecies of injury, is particularly commendable. See pp. 111, 117, &c.

We feel it our duty to ſay thus much of a character, which appears ſo truly deſerving of applauſe from the repreſentation of our author; and by his repreſentation alone is he known to us. If this humble tribute to merit can extend the reputation of actions, not the leſs praiſe-worthy becauſe they are leſs brilliant, we ſhall rejoice that it has fallen to our lot to diſcharge a part of the debt due by all thinking and good men to one who appears to have proved himſelf a benefactor to ſo many of his fellow-creatures.—We muſt quit this theme, and reſume our extracts.

" The natives who lived about Sydney appeared to place the utmoſt confidence in its inhabitants, chooſing a clear ſpot between the town and the brick-field for the performance of any of their rites and ceremonies; and for three evenings the town had been amuſed with one of their ſpectacles, which might properly have been denominated a tragedy, for it was attended with a great effuſion of blood. It appeared, from the beſt account that could be procured, that, one or more murders having been committed in the night, the aſſaſſins, who were immediately known, were compelled, according to the cuſtom of the country, to meet the relations of the deceaſed, who were to avenge their deaths by throwing ſpears, and drawing blood for blood. One native, of the tribe of Cammerray, a very fine fellow, named Carradah, who had ſtabbed another in the night, but not mortally, was obliged to ſtand for two evenings, expoſed to the ſpears not only of the man whom he had wounded, but of ſeveral other natives. He was ſuffered, indeed, to cover himſelf with a bark ſhield, and he behaved with the greateſt courage and reſolution. Whether his principal adverſary (the wounded man) found that he poſſeſſed too much defenſive ſkill to admit of his wounding him, or whether it was a neceſſary part of his puniſhment, was not known with any certainty; but on the ſecond day that Carradah had been oppoſed to him and his party, after having received ſeveral of their ſpears in his ſhield, without ſuſtaining any injury, he ſuffered the other to pin his left arm (below the elbow) to his ſide, without making any reſiſtance; prevented, perhaps, by the uplifted ſpears of the other natives, who could eaſily have deſtroyed him by throwing at him in different directions. Carradah ſtood, for ſome time after this, defending himſelf, although wounded in the arm which held the ſhield, until his adverſaries had not a whole ſpear left, and had retired to collect the fragments and piece them together. On his ſitting down, his left hand appeared to me very much convulſed, and the principal ſurgeon of the ſettlement was of opinion, that the ſpear had pierced one of the nerves. The buſineſs was reſumed when they had repaired their weapons, and the fray appeared to be general, men, women, and children mingling in it, and receiving many ſevere wounds, before night put an end to their warfare.

" What

"What rendered this ſort of conteſt as unaccountable as it was extraordinary was, that friendſhip and alliance were known to ſubſiſt between ſeveral that were oppoſed to each other, who fought with all the ardour of the bittereſt enemies; and who, though wounded, declared the party by whom they had been hurt to be good and brave, and their friends."—P. 236.

We are deſirous of drawing attention to this volume, becauſe it contains information upon a ſubject of the greateſt importance to the community. We would, in particular, excite the regard of thoſe whoſe opinions may have weight in meaſures to be purſued, and regulations to be enforced, in this diſtant and increaſing ſettlement. Enough, we conceive, has been ſaid to effect this purpoſe, if we could preſume that our humble but honeſt labours attracted the notice of perſons occupying ſituations of truſt or dignity under government: we ſhall, therefore, conclude with the following brief ſuggeſtions.

Every poſſible encouragement ſhould be given to inhabitants of this country, of good character, and of experience in any branch of mechanics or huſbandry, to become ſettlers in the new colony.

The moſt exact attention ſhould be paid to the regular performance of divine ſervice in every one of the ſettlements; and clergymen of known reſpectability ſhould be invited to undertake the laborious but important duty of inſtructing theſe wretched men, by an aſſurance of preferment adequate to their zeal and ability.

Care ſhould be taken to preſerve a due proportion between the male and female convicts. The number of the latter hitherto conveyed acroſs the ocean, has fallen very ſhort of that which the beſt intereſts of the colony evidently require.

Encouragement ſhould be given to ſuch publications as that before us. By recording faithfully and minutely the actual ſtate of the eſtabliſhment, they may the ſooner lead to the diſcovery of errors and abuſes, and to the furtherance of ſuch objects as have a tendency to leſſen the defects, or increaſe the advantages, of a ſyſtem, which is now in a material degree connected with the public welfare; and which, if it be adhered to, muſt affect it ſtill more eſſentially hereafter.

ART. CXCI. *Supplement to the Analyſis of Ariſtotle's Speculative Works; containing an Account of the Interpreters and Corrupters of his Philoſophy, in Connection with the Hiſtory of the Times in which they reſpectively flouriſhed.* pp. 48; 4to; price 3*s.* Cadell and Davies. London. 1804.

THE preſent age, abounding in knowledge of every kind, is not wanting in ſucceſsful votaries of Grecian literature. The value of this purſuit, however, does not depend merely on the extent and accuracy of acquaintance with the Greek tongue, but on the uſe that is made of converſancy with that language. A man of very ordinary capacity, with common memory and patient induſtry, may eaſily acquire a verbal familiarity with any tongue that he may chuſe to ſtudy; but it will not follow that his proficiency muſt enable him to make an important acceſſion to the erudition of his age and country. If a ſcholar read Greek books with a view to the meaning of the ſeveral words, and their grammatical conſtructions *chiefly*, he may become very dexterous at *parſing*, and fully competent to be an uſher in that department of a ſchool, which initiates pupils in the elements. Suppoſe his views are higher, and that he knows every change in the metrical parts; and has the whole tribe of *iambics* and *anapæſts* at his finger-ends, it does not therefore follow that he is capable of benefiting the public by his acquirements: there are ſeveral noted Greek ſcholars, whoſe knowledge of phraſes and meaſures is conſiderable, but who never have attempted to render the public more familiar with Grecian poetry, hiſtory, or philoſophy. Thoſe votaries only of Grecian learning, are fitted to convey important inſtruction to the public, who peruſe the Grecian authors with a view to the efforts of GRECIAN MIND. A man of talents and wiſdom devoting his attention to the writings of the moſt ingenious and ableſt nation of antiquity, endeavours to comprehend the thoughts, ſentiments, hiſtory and philoſophy, which the monuments of their genius exhibit. He examines how far their knowledge, ſcience, and practical application, may be rendered acceſſible to his contemporaries. He becomes the interpreter of momentous truths that were not before underſtood. A PHILOSOPHICAL GREEK SCHOLAR, enabled to take ſo wide a range in his interpretations, will conſider probability, ſenſe, connection, cauſe, and effect; and general reſult in exhibiting the whole of an original; and will explain ſeparate words and phraſes, not always exactly as they might be rendered by a dictionary-maker, but as they tally with the context. A *verbal Greek ſcholar*, on the other hand, totally unfit to riſe to general ſurveys, will grope about

ſingle paſſages. With optics, ſharpened in proportion to the narrowneſs and ſhortneſs of their reach, he will diſcover ſome variation from the uſual interpretation of ſome ſingle phraſe; impute that to ignorance of the language which really ariſes from an expanded contemplation of the ſubject; will hug himſelf in the notable diſcovery; ſuppoſe himſelf a much deeper ſcholar than the philoſophical interpreter; and even perſuade others who are ſcholars on the ſame ſcale, or no ſcholars at all, to concur in his opinion.

In the foremoſt rank of PHILOSOPHICAL Greek ſcholars of the preſent age, ſtands Dr. Gillies. We ſay Dr. Gillies ſtands in the foremoſt rank of Greek ſcholars, becauſe his converſancy with that tongue, combined with his powers and general knowledge, has produced ſuch an acceſſion to Engliſh literature. His Hiſtory of Greece exhibited the genius, attainments, character, and actions of that extraordinary people, in their progreſs from barbariſm to refinement, and in their declenſion from refinement to effeminacy. His interpretation of Ariſtotle explains fully, yet conciſely, the diſcoveries and communications of the man who embodied the learning of Greece into one great work. On theſe grounds, we deem Dr. Gillies among the firſt of Greek ſcholars; at the ſame time, we muſt confeſs we do not know whether he be an adept in *grooving Greek verſes.*

In his tranſlation of Ariſtotle, Dr. Gillies endeavoured to make that ſage a perpetual commentary on himſelf; and in every obſcure paſſage to trace out his meaning by comparing it with other paſſages of his works, leſs obſcure; which mode he thought more likely to lead to the real truth, than if he were to apply at ſecond-hand through his commentators. A leading poſition of Dr. Gillies is, that the annotators upon Ariſtotle have very groſsly miſinterpreted his meaning, and endeavoured to throw a veil of myſtery about doctrines which Ariſtotle himſelf had rendered clearly intelligible. He farther aſſerts, that what Ariſtotle wrote may be eaſily explained in perſpicuous Engliſh.

It is the grand purpoſe of Dr. Gillies, in interpreting Ariſtotle, to make him clear, even to the moſt ordinary capacity; and indeed the greater the wiſdom of Ariſtotle, the more beneficial is the tranſlator who renders that wiſdom extenſively known. Ariſtotle, being a philoſopher of very extraordinary comprehenſion, frequently dives to a degree of depth that it requires conſiderable reach of underſtanding to follow. As many ſtudied his works who did not poſſeſs this reach, they did not perceive his meaning, and ſuppoſed that to be myſterious which was merely too deep for

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their underſtandings. Hence many of the Platoniſts of the middle ages formed various theories, at once wild and trifling, on the ſubject of the ſuppoſed myſteries; and the doctrines of Ariſtotle, paſſing through the hands of ſuch commentators, partook of the jargon of the ſchoolmen. Dr. Gillies beſtows great and meritorious labour in diſtinguiſhing between the principles and rules of Ariſtotle himſelf and the viſionary abſtractions of his pretended followers. On the ſubject of *Pythagorean numbers*, and *Platonic ideas*, Ariſtotle had written merely becauſe they were faſhionable at the time; but from their innate abſurdity, being now almoſt totally forgotten, the interpreter thought them undeſerving of particular diſcuſſion.

Abſurd and extravagant as are theſe reveries of the Platoniſts, they are not without a votary even in the preſent enlightened age. This is Mr. Thomas Taylor, author of a tranſlation of Plato's works, who bitterly inveighs againſt Dr. Gillies for conceiving writings of the Stagirite to be intelligible which the Platoniſts pronounced to be myſterious. The acroamatic writings of Ariſtotle, ſays Mr. Taylor, are intentionally obſcure; and Dr. Gillies muſt be ignorant in not perceiving that intentional obſcurity. The ſame ignorance, ſays Mr. Taylor (in his introduction to his tranſlation of Plato), runs through the whole of Dr. Gillies's Ariſtotle. One of the chief cenſures paſſed upon Dr. Gillies is, that he endeavours to adapt every ſubject to the apprehenſion of the meaneſt capacity. Mr. Taylor rails againſt him, calling him Goth, ignorant, inſane, and beſtowing various other epithets, which prove that Mr. Taylor can ſcold, but which do not prove that Mr. Taylor can reaſon.

The Supplement before us vindicates Dr. Gillies from the charges of Mr. Taylor, preſents an account of the interpreters and corrupters of Ariſtotle's philoſophy, and explains the reaſons why the Doctor undertook the analyſis of his works.—When Ariſtotle flouriſhed, the *numbers* of Pythagoras and *ideas* of Plato were received by many fanciful and ingenious men as real ſubſtances; and one great object of the Stagirite, according to Dr. Gillies, was to refute this doctrine. By his interpretation, Ariſtotle regards individuals only as having a real exiſtence in nature: general names expreſſing many individuals of the ſame kind, but having no correſpondent archetype in actual exiſtence: "they imply merely that a variety of objects, numerically different (each being a different unit or individual), on account of certain reſemblances, have been aſſigned to the ſame claſs, and denoted by one common term." To illuſtrate this interpretation, he tranſlates a chapter of

of Ariſtotle's metaphyſics, which refutes the doctrine of Platonic ideas, and proves general names to ſtand for no real exiſtence; for inſtance, that the word *horſe* does not expreſs any actually exiſting being, but is a mere invention for denoting by one name a great number of beings. The explanation of Ariſtotle, as interpreted by Dr. Gillies, is the ſame with that which is given in the received modern ſyſtems of logic and metaphyſics. He cites a tranſlation of the ſame paſſage by Mr. Taylor, that we muſt ſay we cannot comprehend. Tranſlated by Gillies, Ariſtotle ſpeaks intelligible and perſpicuous ſenſe. Tranſlated by Taylor, we cannot ſay whether he ſpeaks ſenſe or nonſenſe, as we do not underſtand what he means. We muſt here obſerve, that if it was the intention of Ariſtotle not to be underſtood, he could not have fallen into better hands than Mr. Taylor's. Farther on we find Mr. Taylor's *motive* for an attack on Dr. Gillies; and here we have an inſtance of as arrogant boaſting as ever we obſerved in any author. Speaking of Dr. Gillies, he ſays, "Surely it is ſome evil genius in an evil hour, that tempted him to abandon hiſtory for philoſophy, and Herodotus for Ariſtotle. Touch not Hector; Hector is my due. Touch not the obſcurity of Ariſtotle; it is not to be vanquiſhed by you." Dr. Gillies, in his Analyſis, plainly and diſtinctly ſtates, that the real ſubject of what is called Ariſtotle's metaphyſics is the vindication of the exiſtence and nature of truth againſt the cavils of ſophiſts, and thoſe now called metaphyſicians; and this doctrine concerning truth he illuſtrated in demonſtrating the being of one God, in oppoſition to Atheiſts on one hand, and Polytheiſts on the other. Such an interpretation provokes Mr. Taylor to great rage, and a profuſion of ſcurrilous names. Nevertheleſs Gillies proves from various paſſages, that it really was the doctrine of Ariſtotle, and that the contrary doctrines imputed to him by Mr. Taylor were not his, but the doctrines of the new Platoniſts or Eclectics, who endeavoured to reconcile the fanciful ingenuity of Plato with the ſound reaſoning of Ariſtotle. He ſhews, that not Ariſtotle himſelf, but theſe commentators, were the maſters from whom Mr. Taylor ſtudied his philoſophy; and leaving the pupil Taylor, he paſſes to his preceptors the Eclectics. He traces the hiſtory of the Platonic philoſophy, which he ſays was far better calculated than that of Ariſtotle to gain an aſcendancy in the corrupted ages which in Greece and Rome followed Alexander and Auguſtus. Both Greeks and Romans became extremely depraved in their manners, and thereby their underſtandings were the more liable to be impreſſed by inadequate reaſoning and wild reveries. A grand maxim of Ariſtotle

totle was, never to embelliſh truth by fiction. The ſpeculatiſts who took their name from Plato, on the contrary, endeavoured to combine philoſophy and mythology into one ſyſtem.—Hence there was a chain of romancers and viſionaries, pretending to philoſophy, from the age of the firſt Ptolemy to the third century. Theſe, reſorting to Egypt, intermixed the conceived notions of Pythagoras and Plato with the childiſh ſuperſtitions of the Egyptians. Others travelling over Aſia, mingled the fables of that country with the notions of Greek viſionaries. To ſuch theoriſts the writings of Plato, which, ſublime as they are, have ſuch an intermixture of reverie and imagination, were much better ſuited than the purely ratiocinative writings of Ariſtotle. The difference between theſe two ſages is marked with ſingular ability by our author:

"Plato's practical philoſophy nearly coincides with Ariſtotle's. Both of them are admirable teachers of a pure and ſublime morality; but their ſeveral modes of enforcing the ſame maxims are as different as the oppoſite bents of their genius. In Ariſtotle, demonſtration is the principal; and illuſtration, ſparingly uſed as a decent *acceſſory* or *appendage*. Plato, on the contrary, diſdains no ornament within his reach; delights, after exciting ſurpriſe, to gratify well-prepared expectation; and condeſcends, on ſubjects peculiarly within the province of reaſon, to uſe the language of paſſion and fancy; to ſtrengthen argument by fable, and fortify belief by wonder; whereas his rival, with more commanding authority, ſubdues even the heart and affections through the reſiſtleſs conviction of the underſtanding. The form of compoſition almoſt perpetually employed by Plato is that of pure drama; a mode of writing excellently adapted to the diſplay of his verſatile genius and flowery fancy; of a mind ſtored with images that he could combine with taſte, and crowded with ideas that he could acutely diſcriminate. Yet with all theſe advantages, his *enthuſiaſm* and love of the *marvellous*; his doctrine of *ideas*, and his Dæmon world; his explanation of mythology by allegory, thus confounding the provinces of philoſophy and popular ſuperſtition; theſe ſhadowy prominences of Plato were calculated to allure and delight many who remained blind to his brighteſt merits, and thereby fitted the labours of this great genius rather to co-operate with, than counteract, the perverters of ſenſe and ſcience, who ſprang up with wild luxuriance among the Greeks and Romans, after thoſe nations had loſt, as it were, their love of truth, together with their paſſion for true glory, their manly ſpirit, and their liberty."

Under the Romans, theſe corrupters of learning aſſumed the name of Eclectics, becauſe they ſelected from all the different ſchools the tenets moſt agreeable to their fancy: but as Plato was their favourite idol, they were called alſo the later Platoniſts, or Platonicians; and having new-moulded to their own

own taſte the wildeſt doctrines of their maſter, they applied them in this corrupt ſtate to interpret the philoſophy of Ariſtotle. Our author proceeds to enumerate ſome of the moſt eminent of theſe viſionaries; among whom there were men that mingled ſound and juſt philoſophy with their wild fancies. One of the number was Plutarch, ſo celebrated for exhibiting men and manners, and the pureſt morals, yet ſo noted for ſuperſtitious chimeras. Next in celebrity was Longinus. After his time there flouriſhed, for about three centuries and a half, a ſucceſſion of Platonicians, called by their votaries and others the *golden chain*. The moſt noted among them were Plotinus, Porphyry, and Proclus. About the middle of the ſixth century, their ſchools were aboliſhed by Juſtinian. Their ſpecific tenets comprehended the two great doctrines of theürgy and perfectibility. Believing in dæmons, they invented new and endleſs orders of thoſe ideal beings. They pretended to divine by ſtars, dreams, ſpecial communications of dæmons, and various other means. They ſuppoſed they were to have intellectual union with the Deity, and that they would be rendered capable, even in the preſent life, of ſeeing all truths through divine illumination. Their notions of theology were not more abſurd than their notions of man. They believed that without death they might arrive at perfection. They attempted to deduce their viſions from the ſtrong reaſon of Ariſtotle, as well as the ſublime imagination of Plato.—The vagaries of the Platonicians our author very naturally imputes to the decrepitude of reaſon; ſince where ſtrong and ſound reaſon predominates, there can be little room for ſuch extravagant viſions. He follows the Platonicians after the ſuppreſſion of their ſchools, down to the middle ages. All this time they profeſſed to be diſciples of Ariſtotle, as well as of Plato, and numberleſs abſurdities that they taught were dignified with the name of Ariſtotelian. He purſues the hiſtory of the ſchools through the contentions of the Nominaliſts and Realiſts. Having expoſed the commentators of Ariſtotle, our author reverts to his maxim, that the beſt commentary upon Ariſtotle is to be found in Ariſtotle's own works; and imputes the errors of Mr. Taylor to his reliance on commentators, inſtead of conſulting the Stagirite himſelf. Dr. Gillies expreſſes his ſurpriſe how Mr. Taylor ſhould have become his determined antagoniſt. GILLIES SEEKS UTILITY, to make the moſt inſtructive and moſt perſuaſive ſyſtem of uninſpired morality familiar to the public, and alſo to impreſs the ſoundeſt and moſt practicable principles and maxims of politics, always beneficial to mankind, but peculiarly ſalutary againſt the infection of the dangerous doctrines that have in

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the preſent age, convulſed a great portion of the civilized world. *Mr. Taylor, on the contrary, profeſſes to deſpiſe utility,* and cenſures thoſe who familiariſe truth to common capacities. Since they purſue totally different objects, our author thinks the invectives of Mr. Taylor wanton and unprovoked, and he has very fully demonſtrated them to be paltry and inefficient.

Hypercritics may nibble at particular phraſes which the philoſophical interpreter has rendered more with a view to the ſenſe of the whole than to the detached meaning of ſingle words. The myſtic viſionary may be enraged at finding in this interpretation clear ſenſe and practical wiſdom, inſtead of the obſcurity in which he himſelf delights; but the writer who has familiarized the wiſeſt philoſopher of the wiſeſt nation of antiquity to the Engliſh reader, deſerves highly of every friend of Britiſh literature, pure morality, ſound and conſtitutional politics.

From the Supplement of Dr. Gillies, we now proceed to a new work of his adverſary concerning that Supplement.

ART. CXCII. *An Anſwer to Dr. Gillies's Supplement to his New Analyſis of Ariſtotle's Works; in which the Unfaithfulneſs of his Tranſlation of Ariſtotle's Ethics is unfolded. By Thomas Taylor.* pp. 91; 8vo.; price 2*s.* 6*d.* Symonds. 1804.

PREFIXED to this pamphlet, is a *modeſt* motto in Greek, with the following tranſlation in verſe:

> "Begone, ye *blockheads!* Heraclitus cries,
> And leave my labours to the learn'd and wiſe;
> By *wit*, by *knowledge*, ſtudious to be read,
> I ſcorn the *multitude*, alive and dead."

This mode of *preſenting* a work to public notice, reminds us of what ſome years ago was done by an obſcure, but not humble votary of the Muſes at Edinburgh. The perſon in queſtion wrote a farce; which farce was damned before it had reached the middle of the firſt act. The author imputed the general diſapprobation of the public to general ſtupidity; and wrote a preface to prove that a confederacy of dunces had been formed againſt him. The motto to this preface was a remark of Swift's—

"It is a ſure ſign of a true genius, when the dunces are in a league againſt him."

From this *modeſt* outſet, the enraged author proceeded *to repreſent himſelf as a* NIGHTINGALE that had in vain tried to open its melodious throat among *owls*.

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But let us ſee whether the performance of Mr. Taylor be conſiſtent with his motto. He commences with a general charge againſt Dr. Gillies, of ignorance and illiberality in preſuming to ridicule the Platonicians and their doctrines, which our author calls the ſublimeſt of Plato's. Next he attacks him as unfaithful to Ariſtotle's Ethics. He *aſſumes* that Dr. Gillies is ignorant of the acroamatic writings of Ariſtotle; thence he proceeds to *aſſert*, that on the ſubject of *numbers* and *ideas* Ariſtotle coincides with Plato; and thus, according to Mr. Taylor, Ariſtotle taught that univerſals have a real exiſtence in nature; or, to illuſtrate this abſtract doctrine by an inſtance, that the general term *animal* ſtands for a *being* that actually exiſts; inſtead of being a mere expedient of language to expreſs what is common to many individual beings. He cites the ſame chapter that was quoted by Dr. Gillies to prove the contrary doctrine, and vilifies the Doctor's tranſlation of that chapter. We have compared Gillies's verſion with the original, and find that, without adhering with literal cloſeneſs to every particle, it very clearly and fully exhibits the ſenſe of the Greek. We alſo find that it is ſound ſenſe in itſelf: Mr. Taylor tranſlates part, and tries to explain the reſt; and we have before us the whole of his tranſlation in Dr. Gillies's Supplement. If we had not ſeen the original, we ſhould have been convinced that the ſaid tranſlation is not a faithful verſion of the clear ſenſe of Ariſtotle, becauſe it is not ſenſe at all; but totally unintelligible. Mr. Taylor next attacks an opinion of Gillies agreeable to the ſcope and tenor of Ariſtotle's theological philoſophy, that Ariſtotle demonſtrates the being of one God. Mr. Taylor inſiſts he was a polytheiſt; but he adduces no proofs that Ariſtotle entertained ſuch opinions. It is indeed evident, from a paſſage quoted by Mr. Taylor himſelf, page 19, that the Stagirite conceived there is one ſupreme cauſe which governs the univerſe, and that the allegation of ſubordinate deities "is fabulouſly introduced for the purpoſe of perſuading the multitude, enforcing the laws, or benefiting human life." Our author, indeed, finding that he could not from Ariſtotle himſelf charge Ariſtotle with polytheiſm, has recourſe to the interpretations of the Platonicians. Mr. Taylor being warmly attached to thoſe viſionary ſcioliſts, the offſpring of declining reaſon and learning, by catching at words inſtead of encountering arguments, endeavours to ridicule the manly ſtrictures of Gillies on thoſe falſe pretenders to philoſophy. Mr. Taylor is an advocate worthy of his eclectic clients; he reaſons as vaguely and inconclufively as they, and leaves the reaſoning of Gillies againſt them, in full force. He inveighs againſt Gillies for expoſing the abſurdity of the Pla-

tonician theology, which presumptuously aspires at a divine illumination, and a communion with the Deity, not granted to human creatures. There next follows Mr. Taylor's assertion that he (Mr. Taylor) is conversant in the Greek tongue. As a verbal scholar he may be, and we believe is; but as a philosophical scholar, competent to render into intelligible English the philosophy of Aristotle, we do not merely *believe*, we plainly SEE that he is not. His competency to understand and translate Aristotle is the only part of his Greek erudition that concerns the readers of the present work. We must be convinced that he knows Aristotle before we can regard, upon his authority, his charges against Dr. Gillies, of misunderstanding and misrepresenting Aristotle. His strictures upon the Supplement and the Analysis do not make good his allegations.

Let us proceed to his accusation of Gillies's version of the Ethics. Here we shall quote Gillies's description of a faithful translation of a work, contrasted with a literal version of the words. "I call that" (says he) "only a faithful translation, which gives the sense of the original precisely and clearly; merits unattainable by him who, following merely the order of construction, interprets the philosophical language of antiquity, of which each expression is good and pure Greek, by the significations usually assigned in Dictionaries, to the different words of which the several phrases are composed; which will, for the most part, make absolute nonsense in Latin, English, or any other language." In the various passages which Mr. Taylor censures, he examines separate words, and not the general import of united words combined into a sentence. By the version of Dr. Gillies, Aristotle is made to speak connected and consistent sense: by the proposed changes of Mr. Taylor we frequently do not clearly see the whole meaning of any sentence, though we can perceive he is not without a Dictionary-knowledge of the separate terms. A moral philosopher, from Dr. Gillies's version of the Ethics, may see a very masterly system of moral relations, virtues, means of acquirement and improvement, and motives of practice. From this version, even without studying the original, he will find a most valuable accession to moral knowledge and science. A practical moralist will find in the version the clearest views of duty, and the strongest inducements to practice, that are to be found in any writings of merely human origin. In Mr. Taylor's corrections, neither the philosopher nor moralist will find clear and precise principles of any kind. The mere English reader will have to encounter a number of Greek words, which, in translating into English, Mr. Taylor prefers

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to Engliſh itſelf; and will have to conſult his Dictionary to find out the meaning of new-coined expreſſions, or rather old Greek with Engliſh terminations; ſuch as *dianoetic*, &c.

In various paſſages, both our author and Dr. Gillies ſhow they underſtand the meaning of the author, yet their verſions are very different in the clearneſs and force with which they expreſs that meaning. In page 44, and to page 48, there is a ſtriking contraſt between a verbal and a philoſophical ſcholar, rendering a paſſage the *words* of which they both underſtand. Mr. Taylor, we admit, adheres very cloſely to the letter of the original; and a ſchool-boy ſo tranſlating the ſame as an exerciſe to his knowledge of phraſes and conſtructions, would certainly deſerve the approbation of his maſter. The caſes, the moods, and the tenſes of the original, are accurately retained in the tranſlation. There is not in the Greek a genetive abſolute, or an impersonal verb, that is not cloſely and faithfully rendered in the tranſlation. The peculiar Greek idiom is preſerved in the Engliſh. The verſion of Dr. Gillies by no means adheres ſo cloſely to the Greek conſtruction, and there is not a Greek idiom in the whole Engliſh paſſage; but the ſenſe is the ſame; and the difference between the two verſions is, that Mr. Taylor expreſſes the meaning of the original with a mixture of Grecian idioms, and in feeble though intelligible Engliſh; whereas Dr. Gillies expreſſes it in pure and ſtrong Engliſh. The ſame obſervations will apply to various other ſpecimens in the ſucceeding twenty-five pages.—The comparative tranſlations are too long for being cited; but we have no doubt our impartial readers will agree with us in thinking, that Mr. Taylor does not always underſtand the original; and where he underſtands it, that he fails in making his verſion of Ariſtotle pure, proper, and forcible Engliſh; whereas Dr. Gillies not only underſtands the original, but renders it into ſuch Engliſh as expreſſes it moſt fully and ſtrongly on the Engliſh reader.

The attempt of Mr. Taylor to diſparage ſo very valuable a work as the Engliſh Ariſtotle, is extremely injudicious. The reputation of Dr. Gillies is too firmly eſtabliſhed to be ſhaken by ſuch puny attacks; and the reputation of Mr. Taylor will not be increaſed by ſtrictures that abound in invective, but are wanting in proof. Without inſtituting any invidious compariſon, we cannot help obſerving, that it is unwiſe in Mr. *Taylor* to ſuggeſt ſuch a compariſon. We muſt remind our author that others will not rate him as he is pleaſed to rate himſelf. We therefore think that he might as well have ſpared the two laſt pages, in which he declares himſelf engaged in a glorious taſk, and places himſelf far beyond Dr. Gillies; proclaims that

a work in which he is engaged "is without a parallel;" and announces that he is "the man appointed by Providence to preſerve to poſterity the elements of the virtues, and the rules of truth, committing theſe to writing for common advantage, as a paternal and immortal inheritance." Conſiſtent throughout as he began, he ends with a very high panegyric, of which he is the ſubject——himſelf. It is my Sancho, ſaid Don Quixote, who was born to renew the golden age.

ART. CXCIII. *Letters on Sileſia; written during a Tour through that Country in the Years* 1800, 1801. *By His Excellency John Quincy Adams, then Miniſter from the United States to the Court of Berlin; and ſince Member of the American Senate.* 8vo. pp. 387. Price 8s. Budd, London. 1804.

WE know of no ſpecies of reading more amuſing than that of a well written narrative, the reſult of a tour through a country with which we were previouſly but little acquainted. It muſt, however, be admitted, that the information contained in ſuch a narrative, is too frequently inadequate to the deſires of a perſon who reads for inſtruction. The touriſt remains but a ſhort time at each place, he ſees objects but once; and for the moment he feels ſatisfied that his enquiries have been ſufficiently ample; but farther reflection convinces him, that he ought to have put many other queſtions to have enabled him to gratify his own wiſhes, or the deſires of thoſe for whom he afterwards collects and arranges his ſcattered thoughts.

He who undertakes to write a deſcription of a place, or of a mechanical proceſs, for another, ſhould be accurate without being too minute; ſhould endeavour to leave room for no ſubſequent queries: he ſhould put himſelf, as it were, in the place of his friend, and aſk whether his own account would, had circumſtances been reverſed, have been ſatisfactory to himſelf. We have been led to this reflection from reaſons aſſigned in various parts of theſe letters for not being more circumſtantial in the notice of objects which are profeſſedly deſcribed. As an example, we may refer to the third letter: in this, we are introduced to the potteries of Bunzlau, and are led to anticipate a detail of the manufactory; inſtead of which, all we learn is, that from a cubic maſs of clay about a foot thick, the workman form, in about five minutes, the pot, by merely moulding it with the hand, while it whirls round upon a circular bench, placed before the workmen. Here is no information reſpecting the machinery; no notice taken of the preparation which the clay undergoes before it is moulded into the veſſels

for which it is intended: and the reason assigned for the scantiness of the account is, "We could not, however, stay long to see them, for they work in the same room where the ovens are heated to bake the pots, and its warmth was to us intolerable."

We are informed by the editor, that these Letters were not originally intended for public view, but, at the request of some gentlemen of distinguished taste, they were first printed in America; "and are now offered to the British public as a faithful picture of the interesting province of Silesia, by the hand of a gentleman, a scholar, and a statesman." They are divided into two parts; the *first* containing a journal of the tour, in which the topography, the agriculture, manufactures, and commerce of the country, together with the manners and customs of the people, are accurately described: the second part includes a geographical, statistical, and historical account of Silesia.

Mr. Adams set out on his tour from Berlin. From thence he proceeded to Frankfort on the Oder; and thence through Crossen, Grunberg, Sprottau to Bunzlau: from each of these places we have an account of whatever is most deserving of notice; we shall stop with our traveller at Bunzlau, in order to give the reader a specimen of his powers of description.

"Bunzlau, July 26, 1800.

"Yesterday morning early we took our departure from Freystadt and came to this place, a distance of eight German miles, five of which are in a single stage from Sprotau hither. The face of the country has visibly and greatly improved as we came along; and although we still had to wade through several miles of sands, more or less deep, we were frequently relieved by patches of good roads, and by beautiful fields of wheat, rye, barley, oats, and especially flax, which appeared in a highly flourishing condition. As it happens to be just now harvest time, we passed many groups of reapers; a sight which would have afforded us more satisfaction, had we not known that they were far from gathering the bounties of the season for themselves, and had they not, by frequently soliciting our charity, proved the wretchedness of their condition. We travelled through Saxony, a part of March, and a corner of Bohemia, last year at this time; and then we also met many companies of reapers: we saw several last week as we came from Berlin, but we never before beheld them beg. Since we entered Silesia, yesterday and the day before, certainly more than twenty times, as we passed by troops of peasants of both sexes who were gathering the harvest, a woman from among them, and sometimes two or three, ran from the fields to our carriage with a little bunch of flowers, tied up with some ears of the grain which they were gathering, and threw them into the carriage at the windows, by way of begging for a dreyer, or

half a groſh. The reaſon of this is, becauſe the condition of the peaſant in Sileſia is much worſe than in the Electorate: for, although perſonal ſervitude exiſts alike in both provinces, yet the ſorf in the March is never compelled to labour for his lord more days than there are. In Sileſia he is often obliged to furniſh ten days work in a week: judge then, after the man and his wife have both laboured five days in ſeven for the lord, what ſort of a ſubſiſtence they can earn in the remaining two (one of which is Sunday) for themſelves.

"There is ſo little travelling through this country, that unleſs poſt-horſes are beſpoken beforehand, they muſt be waited for till they can be brought in by ſome peaſant from the fields. Thus we were obliged to ſtop yeſterday three hours at Sprotau, and, to employ the time, went round the town to ſee whatever it contained remarkable.

"The greateſt curioſities of Bunzlau are two mechanical geniuſes, by the name of Jacob, and of Hüttig, a carpenter and a weaver, who are next-door neighbours to each other. The firſt has made a machine, in which, by means of certain clock-work, a number of puppets, about ſix inches high, are made to move upon a kind of ſtage, ſo as to repreſent in ſeveral ſucceſſive ſcenes the paſſion of Jeſus Chriſt. The firſt exhibits him in the garden at prayer, while the three apoſtles are ſleeping at a diſtance. In the laſt he is ſhown dead in the ſepulchre, guarded by two Roman ſoldiers. The intervening ſcenes repreſent the treachery of Judas, the examination of Jeſus before Caiaphas, the dialogue between Pilate and the Jews concerning him, the denial of Peter, the ſcourging, and the crucifixion. It is all accompanied by a mournful dirge of muſic; and the maker, by way of explanation, repeats the paſſages of ſcripture which relate the events he has undertaken to ſhow. I never ſaw a ſtronger proof of the ſtrength of the impreſſion of objects, which are brought immediately home to the ſenſes. I have heard and read more than one eloquent ſermon upon the paſſion, but I confeſs none of their moſt laboured efforts at the pathetic ever touched my heart with one half the force of this puppet-ſhow. The traitor's kiſs, the blow ſtruck by the high-prieſt's ſervant, the ſcourging, the nailing to the croſs, the ſpunge of vinegar, every indignity offered, and every pain inflicted, occaſioned a ſenſation, when thus made perceptible to the eye, which I had never felt at mere deſcription."

The weaver has applied his genius in a different manner, and devoted all his leiſure to geographical, aſtronomical, and hiſtorical purſuits. The walls of his rooms are covered with maps and drawings of his own. On tables in one room, all the towns and remarkable places of Germany in particular, and of Europe in general, are ranged according to their reſpective geographical bearings. In a ſecond room he has a large machine repreſenting the Copernican ſyſtem of the univerſe: it is made in ſuch a manner, as that the whole firmament of fixed ſtars moves round our ſolar ſyſtem once in every twenty-four hours;

hours; and thus always exhibits the stars in the exact position relative to our earth in which they really stand. Internally, he has stationed all the planets which belong to our system, with their several satellites, and all the comets that have been observed during the last three centuries. In a third room is another machine, exhibiting in different parts the various phases of the moon, and those of Jupiter's satellites; the apparent motion of the sun round the earth, and the real motion of the earth round the sun. And in the garret is represented a projection of the earth, upon Mercator's plan, on which are described the tracts of all the celebrated circumnavigators of the globe.

"Such," says Mr. Adams, "is the imperfect description I can give you from a short view of the labours of this really curious man. He must be nearly, or quite, seventy years old, and has all his life-time been of an infirm constitution: but his taste for the sciences, he told us, was hereditary in his family, and had been common to them all, from his great grand-father down to himself. His dress and appearance were those of a common weaver; but his expressive countenance, at once full of enthusiastic fire and of amiable good-nature, was a model upon which Lavater might expatiate with exultation. The honest and ingenious weaver, on our taking leave, made us smile by exclaiming, that now, if he could but have a traveller from Africa come to see his works, he could boast of having had visitors from all quarters of the globe."

It is not our intention to follow Mr. A. in his tour: we have laid before the reader a specimen of the sort of entertainment which he may expect. The letters, in general, answer to the description given of them by the writer: "they serve as a journal, and are, of course, fragments written at different times and places." But every place offers something new to describe; every town has its peculiar manufactures, and the inhabitants of every district are in some of their customs distinguished from those of their neighbours. Of these peculiarities, our traveller has taken the advantage, and given us as much entertainment as we have a right to expect from a work of this nature. In some of the letters, we are presented with lively and interesting scenes which the several parts of the country afford; in others, we are led up to the top of cloud-capt mountains, or down to pits filled with eternal snows. Here we are entertained with reflections which occurred from striking and *outré* objects;—there we are led to enter into those religious sentiments which the stupendous works of the Creator are calculated to inspire. Now we are conducted into the broad-cloth or linen manufactories, or into vitriol-works or glass-houses;—then we travel up the Silesian mountains, and

learn that the mountaineers, who have been repreſented as the moſt perfect models of patriarchal virtue, happineſs, and ſimplicity, are deſtitute of almoſt all the comforts of life:

"Their houſes are ſituated at ſuch an elevation upon the mountains, that the ground will produce nothing but graſs, and they can raiſe nothing but cows, goats, and a few fowls. For ſix months in the year they are in a manner buried under the ſnow, and are cut off from all intercourſe with other human beings. Their log huts are of a ſingle ſtory and a hay-loft: the floor below is divided into four apartments, one of which is a ſtable for their cattle, another their dairy, the third is the common dwelling-place of all the family, and the fourth a very ſmall room for the reception of ſtrangers. The family-room ſerves at once as kitchen, eating-room, and bed-room, and is heated with fires all the year round. There is a wide bench that goes all round the room, on which they ſleep; for they have no beds, or, at moſt, one for the maſter and miſtreſs of the houſe; and if the ſtrangers who paſs the night there require ſoft beds, they muſt content themſelves as well as they can with ſweet hay, for ſtraw is a luxury unknown to theſe virtuous patriarchs. As they have not this article for their cows to lie down upon, they keep their ſtables uncommonly clean, and generally make one of the ſtreams, which are ſo abundant upon the mountains, run through them and through the dairy: but their cow-yard, in which all the manure is kept, is cloſe upon the houſe, ſo that you noſe it at a great diſtance upon your approach to the houſe; and by this community of the roof between the family and all the other cattle, ſo much filthineſs ariſes, that it is ſcarcely conceivable how they can keep even their dairies clean. Of their perſons they appear to take no concern at all; and are, of courſe, as dirty as any other peaſants in the moſt wretched hovels of Europe. The houſes are generally full of children, clad in no other garb than a coarſe ſhirt; oftentimes ſtark naked, and loaded with vermin like the land of Egypt at the laſt of its plagues. Such is the condition of theſe venerable and bliſsful beings, whom we had heard extolled as the genuine children of nature—the true ſamples of mankind in the golden age. Their manners are varied according to their individual characters; all are, coarſe moſt of them diſguſting, and ſome rude and inſolent: as to their treatment of ſtrangers, the only two by whom we have been entertained impoſed egregiouſly upon us in their charges."

In one of the letters, Mr. A. entertains us with an account of a Sileſian dinner, to which about thirty perſons were invited: it laſted five hours, the whole of which was employed in eating; for, as only one diſh is ſerved at a time, and the dinner conſiſted of three courſes, and every diſh muſt be handed round to each gueſt, the intervals between the diſhes are of courſe very long: the uſual time of dinner is about ſeven hours. We are next led to a Lutheran church, and learn

learn the principal characteristics of this division of the Christian religion: we are then taken to a bleachery, a worsted-stocking manufactory, and are taught the modes of barter at Waldenburg: from thence we descend the coal-mines; the description of which is concluded with the following observations, which do credit to Mr. A.'s impartiality, and honour to our country:

"This water-communication from the surface of the earth to the bottom of the mine, which so prodigiously facilitates the transportation of the coal from its original dungeon to the regions of day, is an English contrivance, very recently, and with some reluctance, adopted here. The further we go, and the more we see, the greater reason we have to be convinced that England is the country where genius and science have been the most successfully applied to the improvement of the arts and manufactures."

From the second part of this work, which gives a pretty full account of all the establishments in Silesia, we shall select what our traveller has said of the political constitution of that province. The supreme power in this, as in other parts of the Prussian kingdom, is in the hands of a single person; but it is governed by permanent laws, and the several classes of the inhabitants have privileges which every king engages to maintain.

The inhabitants are discriminated into three classes, viz. the nobles, citizens, and peasants. The nobility consist of the proprietors of mediate principalities; and their privileges are those of not being bound to do homage to the king, otherwise than in person; and of having a sort of government and judicial courts of their own appointment, subject only to appeal to the highest tribunal of the monarchy, to which alone they are themselves personally amenable. There are other classes of nobles, but these landholders only have the right of a seat in the states of the provinces, and they have but a limited power to purchase lands not previously noble: they are not allowed to practise any trade or mechanic profession, but may engage in wholesale commerce. The number of noble families amounts to about five thousand.

The greatest distinction between the privileges of the nobility, and those of the citizens or towns-people, is, that the former are all personal, the latter all corporate. The citizen, individually, has no privileges, but partakes of those which belong to the town:—these are, to be governed by their own laws; to elect their own magistrates; the right of practising any of the corporate trades; the power of preventing any mechanic exercising his trade within a mile of the city; and the right of holding annual fairs. As, however, the peasants are the

the great mafs of the people, we fhall give an account of their condition and fcanty privileges in our author's own words:

"Under the name of peafants are compriſed all the inhabitants of the country without the cities, who are employed in the tillage of the land, with the exception of thoſe who, by birth, office, or ſome ſpecial privilege, belong to one of the other claſſes. They conſtitute nearly three quarters of the population. Of this great mafs of the people, a very ſmall part are entirely free. By the new Pruſſian code of laws, perſonal ſervitude is, indeed, nominally aboliſhed; but the ſervices and duties of which it conſiſted are not only retained, but formally regulated by law. According to the difference of theſe ſervices, the peaſants are diſtinguiſhed by three different denominations: 1ſt, Peaſants, properly ſpeaking. Theſe are men who poſſeſs a hut and a ſmall piece of land, and are bound to do farming work for the lord, without pay, a certain number of days in the week: the number of theſe days is different upon different eſtates. 2d, Gardeners, or perſons who hold a piece of ground, or a garden, belonging to the lordſhip, upon the ſame condition of farming work for the lord, for which they receive a ſmall and very inadequate portion of the produce of their labour in kind, or a pittance in money; for inſtance, about five cents American money (not quite two-pence three farthings ſterling) by the day. 3d, Houſeholders, or perſons who hold a hut without land, who ſubſiſt by working as day-labourers, and pay the lord a ſmall tax in money. All theſe people are, in a manner, appendages to the glebe, for they cannot quit the ground to which they belong, without the conſent of their lords, or paying a ſort of redemption fine; which, though very trifling, as it ſhould ſeem, being only a ducat, is yet more than moſt of them can, in the courſe of their lives, command. On their part, however, the lords cannot turn theſe tenants away from the ſpot of land or the cottage they hold; nor can they ſell the eſtate, without conveying at the ſame time the tenant, to hold with the ſame rights and obligations under the new lord. All theſe ſecurities in favour of the peaſants were introduced and eſtabliſhed by Frederick II.; for, before his time, the tenant was liable to be turned out of his poſſeſſion at the lord's pleaſure, and employed in domeſtic ſervice, or left to obtain a ſubſiſtence as he could. Several thouſands of the peaſant farms and cottages were, in conſequence of ſuch practices, untenanted and falling to ruin at the period of the Pruſſian conqueſt. Frederick obliged the lords to rebuild the cottages, provide them with the grounds, cattle, farming utenſils, &c. which had belonged to them when previouſly occupied, and place in them good able-bodied tenants, whom they were no longer allowed ſterwards to remove. This ſyſtem, thus eſtabliſhed, and rigorouſly carried into execution, certainly contributed moſt eſſentially to better the condition of the peaſants: but it was oppreſſive upon the landlords, and a manifeſt violation of their rights of property. Such is the character of arbitrary power:—its only medicines are extracts from the deadlieſt poiſons; its moſt bounteous charities are but the fruits of robbery."

ART. CXCIV. *Galatea: a paſtoral Romance. From the French of Monſieur Florian; by Miſs Highley.* 12mo. pp. 157. Price 7s. Highley. 1804. London.

IT is juſtly obſerved, in the dedication of this little volume to the Marchioneſs of Saliſbury, that "Florian is a name dear to every mind of ſenſibility;" and that "his works have ever been accounted the ſtandard of pure and elegant compoſition." A verſion of one of the moſt pleaſing of his tales was therefore very judiciouſly propoſed as a proper exercise for a young lady of fifteen. This verſion having been executed in ſuch a manner as to "excite the aſtoniſhment" of a friend or perhaps a relative of the fair tranſlator, "he could not reſiſt the vanity of publication." Such is the hiſtory of this little volume; and we deem it but juſtice to its merits to avow our opinion, that it deſerves a much better reception than it may *à priori* ſeem likely to obtain, as the performance of a young lady who has juſt quitted ſchool, and uſhered to public notice, by the partiality of friendſhip or of conſanguinity. Miſs H. has not only been faithful to the ſenſe of the original, but ſhe has alſo infuſed into her tranſlation no inconſiderable portion of the united ſpirit and delicacy which gives ſo irreſiſtible a charm to the compoſition of Florian.

As we are not yet rendered hard-hearted by the chilling influence of time, or by practice in the critic art, we might in all probability have been prevented by the principle of gallantry from diluting this commendation by any cenſorial remark. But we are, in this inſtance, happily enabled to diſcharge our duty to the public, without treſpaſſing upon the regards due to youth and the female ſex. Miſs Highley is introduced to us by an editor; and as parliamentary orators are permitted to impute to miniſters all the errors in the ſpeeches of his Majeſty, ſo we ſhall blame the editor of this book for certain inaccuracies, which he ought to have corrected. Of theſe inaccuracies we ſhall ſpecify a few of the more glaring.

P. 82. "Every effort to reſtore her *were* in vain."
P. 84. "There they *lay them* down to repoſe."
P. 102. "*Her* of whom I ſpeak is not a ſhepherdeſs."
P. 104. "Let us contrive a *more preferable* way."
P. 109. "It is thy friend, *him* who is indebted to thee for his life."

We muſt alſo ſuggeſt to the editor, that in the annals of romance, ladies do not ride upon *ponies* but *palfreys*.

ART. CXCV. *Memoirs of the Life of Agrippina, the Wife of Germanicus. By Elizabeth Hamilton, Author of Letters on the Elementary Principles of Education.* 3 Vols. Price 18s. Robinsons, London. 1804.

WHO has not felt an intereſt in the deſtiny of Agrippina, the grand-daughter of Auguſtus, the wife of Germanicus, long the idol of Rome, and finally the victim of a flagitious tyrant, ſtill pre-eminent by his atrocities in the liſt of criminals, and in the annals of infamy? The claims of Agrippina on the mind and heart are ſuch as will be recognized by the moſt remote poſterity:—ſhe has received a charter of immortality from the moſt eloquent of hiſtorians: and what pen ſhall dare remind us that Tacitus once *lived*, and wrote as none may ever write again? Such were the ſtrictures we were ready to apply to the preſent work, and ſuch the impreſſions we had received from its title-page. All our claſſical prejudices were alarmed; and, with more zeal than charity, we opened the book with almoſt a determination to ſtigmatize with obloquy the unhallowed union of biography and romance, and to ſubject to the rigorous canons of criticiſm every aberration from the good old doctrines of correct taſte. We began to read: and ſo fallacious is the evidence of a title-page, we ſoon forgot our reſolutions and our cenſures; and in contemplating the intereſting age of Auguſtus and Tiberius, loſt all conſciouſneſs of our critical exiſtence. For this faſcination we have diſcovered an adequate cauſe in the exquiſite judgment with which the hiſtorical outline of Agrippina is filled up by the delicate touches of the biographic pencil.

In the ſelection and arrangement of her materials, the author has, without the aid of fiction, contrived to inveſt her page with the charm of novelty. She has animated every ſcene, and rendered us intimate with the characters before us. We continued to read; and finally cloſed the book with the conviction, that genius is always original, whether its ſubject be old or new.

The object of this work is thus developed in the author's preface:

"To point out the advantages which are to be derived from paying ſome attention to the nature of the human mind in the education of youth, was the object of a former work: the author's aim in the preſent is, to give ſuch an illuſtration of the principles that were then unfolded, as may render them more extenſively uſeful. In the taſk of inſtructing others, many are indeed concerned; but the duties of ſelf-inſtruction and ſelf-government are impoſed on all. Such a knowledge of the human mind as is to be obtained from obſervation and

and experience, appears to be placed within the reach of every one capable of reflection; and this reflection it is the aim of every moraliſt to excite, when he reaſons upon the conſequences of vice and virtue. But to thoſe who wiſh to obtain a knowledge of their own hearts, and are anxiouſly ſolicitous for their improvement, ſomething more than general obſervations is requiſite. In order to the government of the paſſions, it is neceſſary to be acquainted with their origin and progreſs;—a ſpecies of knowledge to be derived, not ſo much from a view of their conſequences, as from an accurate obſervation of their gradual developement. In purſuing this inquiry, we ought not to be diſcouraged at finding it more complex than we at firſt view apprehended. The metaphyſician may, indeed, ſeparate the paſſions from each other, as the experimental philoſopher ſeparates the rays of light by the priſm, and repreſents each ſingly to our view in one uniform colour. But in human character it is not thus that the paſſions are found to appear: every paſſion, even that which predominates, is there ſeen blended with thoſe which gave it birth, and with the paſſions and affections to which it has affinity; and it is by obſerving theſe affinities that we are enabled to pronounce on the good or evil tendency of any particular paſſion."

Faithful to the plan which is here delineated, Miſs Hamilton has given, in theſe intereſting memoirs, not a dry ſynopſis of facts and dates, collated from the annals of a moſt eventful period, but a philoſophical elucidation of the Roman character,—a bold and impreſſive portraiture of the Auguſtan age. In the hiſtory of particular perſonages, ſhe has written the hiſtory of the paſſions, the principles, the prejudices, to whoſe dominion they were ſubject;—a dominion, unhappily for man, perpetuated through all the revolutions of time and fate;—the extinction of rival nations, the ſubverſion of omnipotent empire, the decline of ſyſtems, and the diſſolution of ages. It is not the expoſition of a biographical chart that is thus exhibited, but an illuſtration of the great map of human nature, under the various moral gradations of which, from cuſtom and opinion, from complexional habits and popular ſentiments, it is ſuſceptible. The preliminary chapter, on the character of the Romans, is rich in reflection, and does honour to the diſcriminative powers of the writer. We cannot refuſe ourſelves the ſatisfaction of tranſcribing the following paſſage, in which Miſs H. forcibly illuſtrates her favourite political axiom, that the altar of Liberty can only be protected by the arms of Virtue:

"In loſing public ſpirit, the Romans loſt the ſole animating principle on which their virtues depended for exiſtence. While the love of virtue was ſupported by a rigid ſimplicity of manners, the talents of Cæſar, ſeconded by the wealth of Craſſus, and the power of

of Pompey, would have in vain attempted to overthrow the *conſtitution of their country;* but the change of manners, and the prevalence of vice, rendered it an eaſy enterprize. The penetration of Cæſar diſcovered the vulnerable part: he knew that luxury is prodigal, and that prodigality is ſelfiſh; and that ſelfiſhneſs ſcruples not to purchaſe the low gratifications of depraved appetite at the expence of the public good; he, therefore, by his example of profuſion, increaſed prodigality, encouraged luxury, and promoted that deſire of ſelfiſh gratification, which he knew how to turn to his own advantage. Judging that the man who has not courage to combat his own vicious inclinations, will not evince much conſtancy in the cauſe of freedom, he conſidered all in whom the ſpirit of independence was too feeble to reſtrain the love of pleaſure, as deſerters from the ſtandard of liberty. His expectation was juſtified by the event: his camp became the aſylum of every diſtinguiſhed profligate who, in ſcenes of giddy riot or oſtentatious luxury, had ſquandered the fortunes of his anceſtors. The number was formidable:—by the levity of idleneſs, and the factious ſpirit of diſcontent, it was every day increaſed.—The fortunes of Cæſar prevailed; but, in fact, the triumph of Cæſar was nothing more than the triumph of the ſelfiſh and ſenſual paſſions over thoſe reſtraints which a contempt of riches, and love of national glory, had once impoſed.—Roman liberty," adds Miſs H. eloquently, "did not die a *violent* but a *natural* death. In vain did a few vigorous and independent minds endeavour to *protract* the hour of her diſſolution;—in vain did they hope from the death of Cæſar a reſtoration of her exiſtence:—the dagger of Brutus might, like the galvanic ſhock, produce a ſhort and convulſive motion, but the animating ſoul of Liberty had fled for ever!"

Adverting to the promulgation of the Goſpel, and its reception by the Roman world, Miſs Hamilton offers ſome admirable ſuggeſtions on the inſidious operation of early aſſociations in the Gentile converts, and of their ſubſequent effects in the corruption of the Chriſtian church:

"Superſtition, whoſe roots had taken hold of the ſoil by a thouſand ramifications, was too deeply fixed to be eaſily eradicated: before the firſt preachers of the Goſpel it had indeed fallen proſtrate; but in imperfect proſelytes it revived and flouriſhed; nor has it in the ages that have ſucceeded given way, ſo as to promiſe its ſpeedy extirpation from the Chriſtian world. Imperfectly as the religion of Jeſus may have been underſtood and practiſed by many of its votaries, the benevolent mind will rejoice in tracing its benignant influence in humaniſing the paſſions, and ameliorating the condition of the human race."

To analyſe theſe volumes would be a taſk arduous to ourſelves and invidious to the greater part of our readers, who will, we predict with confidence, purſue the deſtinies of Agrip-

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pina in the original work. As a ſpecimen of the manner in which it is executed, we ſelect the deſcription of the Batavian expedition, which ſucceeded the ſecond victory obtained by Germanicus over the brave Armintus in the far-famed plains of Minden:

"The ſeaſon for enterprize being nearly over, Germanicus ordered ſome of the legions to return by land to winter-quarters; the reſt he ſaw embarked; and, when all were ready for ſailing, went on board with Agrippina and his children, anxious to explore thoſe unknown regions, of which ſome had reported ſuch extraordinary things. The fleet ſailed with a gentle current to the ocean: but ſoon an equinoctial ſquall commenced, which to the unſkilled ſeamen appeared a ſtorm of unparalleled fury.—Incapable of managing their ill-conſtructed veſſels, they became the prey of terror and deſpair, and the ſhips, thus abandoned to the rage of the tempeſtuous elements, were permitted to daſh againſt each other, or to drive upon the rocks by which they were ſurrounded. To lighten the ſhips was the only expedient that preſented itſelf: and, accordingly, horſes, beaſts of burthen, arms and baggage, were committed to the waves. Of all the horrors that preſented themſelves to their imagination, the dread of being caſt upon the inhoſpitable ſhores of England, or Holland, was the moſt appalling. How little did they imagine that thoſe then barbarous nations ſhould in future times ſo far excel them in the art of navigation, as to ride in triumph through the waves, in ſhips of ſuch dimenſions as never entered into the heart of Roman to conceive; nor would Agrippina have been leſs aſtoniſhed, had ſhe been told that at the diſtance of nearly eighteen hundred years her hiſtory would be written by a female deſcendant of the barbarians ſhe deſpiſed, and that her failings and her virtues would be at that diſtant period pourtrayed, with a view of illuſtrating more important truths than Greece had ever taught, or Rome believed! Germanicus, though a ſtranger to fear, was deeply impreſſed with the horrors of his preſent ſituation: his ſhip was ſeparated from the fleet and driven by the tempeſt to the mouth of the Weſer; he there landed with his family, and for a moment indulged the joy that aroſe on ſeeing them in ſafety. But when on the return of day he viewed the coaſt ſtrewed with the wrecks of the ſhips that had been daſhed to pieces on the ſhore, and ſcattered over with the dead bodies of his brave companions, the deepeſt melancholy took poſſeſſion of his ſoul: in this diſconſolate ſtate he wandered up and down, refuſing to liſten to the voice of comfort, and inceſſantly accuſing himſelf as the author of the great calamity; it is ſaid to have been even with difficulty that he was reſtrained from burying himſelf in the ſame waves that had ſwallowed up ſo many of his braveſt ſoldiers: for a time he feared that no ſhip but his own had eſcaped the fury of the tempeſt; but when the ſtorm ſubſided, many of the ſcattered veſſels were ſeen ſlowly advancing, as they were wafted by the wind and tide towards the Weſer. Day

after

after day brought in others; and the Angrivarians*, willing to ſhew their fidelity to their new maſters, ranſomed from the other barbarians numbers of the Roman ſoldiers who had been caſt upon their coaſts. The ſhips firſt refitted were ſent without delay to ſearch for their companions, and to recover, if poſſible, all thoſe who had ſurvived the miſery of the ſhipwreck. Great numbers were thus reſtored to their own country, ſome even from ſo great a diſtance as the northern parts of Britain, where they had been reſcued by the petty princes (perhaps the anceſtors of Fingal) from periſhing in the waves.—For them the feaſt of ſhells may have been ſpread in the halls which afterwards reſounded with the harp of Oſſian: but the mind of the ignorant, when impreſſed by terror, ſees nothing ſave the gloomy creations of its own diſtempered fancy:—the men, on their return, inſtead of expatiating with rapture on the brave youths and white-boſomed damſels of Morven, talked of huge ſea-monſters, and ambiguous forms, partly man and partly fiſh; things which Tacitus believes they poſſibly might have ſeen in theſe barbarous regions, though, as he ingenuouſly acknowledges, they might be nothing elſe ſave the coinage of imagination crazed with fear. If ſo wiſe a man as Tacitus did not diſclaim belief in the poſſibility of ſuch marvellous things, we muſt not attribute to Agrippina a greater ſhare of philoſophical incredulity at Rome, among the crowd of foreigners who came from diſtant regions to do homage to Auguſtus; ſhe had particularly remarked the deputies from the Britiſh ſtates, and while ſhe remained in Belgium had ſeen ſuch numbers as might have convinced her, that however they might be diſguiſed by dreſs or paint, they were in ſize and ſhape like other men. But the fables of the heathen mythology, and the fiction of the poets, had ſuch a powerful effect upon the imagination, that it is no wonder the diſpoſition to believe in the marvellous, which was thus introduced and cheriſhed, ſhould have been too deeply rooted to yield to reaſon or experience. That the remote parts of the earth were peopled with monſters, was a fact which ſhe never thought of calling in queſtion; and though the Britiſh barbarians on the ſouthern coaſts of the iſland had the human form, it was to her no proof that thoſe upon the northern ſhores were not ſuch as they had been repreſented. With very different emotions did Germanicus liſten to theſe tales of wonder. Every account he received of thoſe remote regions only ſerved to augment the deep regret he felt at being forced to relinquiſh all hopes of now exploring them; nor could he forbear reflecting on the ſimilar diſappointment experienced by his father, who, having formed the bold reſolution of ſailing into the northern ſeas, and actually advanced as far as Jutland, was obliged to return from the fruitleſs expedition, without having made any diſcovery worthy of his fame. He ſighed to think that the fates ſhould be thus unpropitious to his family; but the greater number of thoſe who accompanied him, thanked the gods who had

* A German nation, inhabiting what is now the Biſhopric of Oſnaburgh.

kindly

kindly reſtrained him from an enterprize that was, in their opinion, audacious even to impiety."

We cannot quit theſe volumes without congratulating Miſs Hamilton on her ſucceſsful efforts in one of the moſt honourable and leaſt cultivated fields of literature. Biography, without departing from its appropriate caſt, aſſimilates with every diverſity of taſte, and extends collateral claims on almoſt every family of genius; the chart of experience which it unrolls is equally pleaſing to adventurous youth, and to retiring age; to thoſe that have all to learn, and to ſuch as have little more to know: with the imagination of the poet when he gives "to airy nothing a local habitation and a name," the biographer arreſts the fugitive idea, and from the faded form of memory produces a ſubſtantial object, capable of engaging our ſympathies, our ſolicitudes, and our affections: with the ſame penetrating ſpirit by which the philoſopher illuminates recondite truths, the biographer detects the latent ſources of action, diſcovers the ſecret conductor of the mind, and traces the proceſs of the incidental with the complexional paſſions in forming the general character.—It is impoſſible not to wiſh that Miſs Hamilton may purſue her biographic career; ſubjects are not wanting; our own country has her heroes and her philoſophers, worthy of the recording pen of Genius.

ART. CXCVI. *Syſtem of Mineralogy; comprehending Oryctognoſie, Geognoſie, Mineralogical Chemiſtry, Mineralogical Geography, and Œconomical Mineralogy. By Robert Jameſon, Regius Profeſſor of Natural Hiſtory, &c.* Vol. 1. 8vo. pp. 664. price 14s. Longman and Rees, 1804.

IF, on the one hand, the preſent age has been peculiarly favourable to the ſtudy of Natural Hiſtory, it muſt, on the other hand, be confeſſed, that a number of diſcordant ſyſtems have ſprung up, the profeſſors of which, in conſequence of the enthuſiaſm that we are apt to feel for our own productions, diſgrace thoſe ſyſtems by the vehemence with which they vilify all who are implicit followers of their dogmas. Mineralogy has not eſcaped from this fate. It has certainly been highly improved; but, from the above cauſe, diſſentions have been introduced into it, of the progreſs of which we ſhall give ſome account.

The antient mineralogiſts certainly had neither a conſiſtent ſyſtem, nor an uniform method of deſcription; by them, however, the foundation of all our preſent ſyſtems was laid:

and the ſcience is under greater obligations to them, than ſome of the moderns ſeem willing to allow. To Linnæus we owe the firſt ſucceſsful attempt towards aſcertaining the genera of minerals, and forming accurate deſcriptions of the ſpecies. In imitation of his predeceſſors, he arranged the various ſtony bodies according to their external characters; the ſaline, inflammable, and metallic ſubſtances according to their moſt notable conſtituent part; while his third claſs was compoſed of ſuch bodies as he conſidered to be of a more new, or ſecondary, formation. In his ſpecies, he principally attended to the texture, or figure, of the ſubſtance. An unhappy hypotheſis, viz. that cryſtalliſed ſtones owed their regular figure to the preſence of ſome ſaline body, induced him to arrange them under the ſalts whoſe cryſtals they moſt reſembled. This circumſtance has, more than any other, occaſioned the oblivion into which his arrangement has fallen. It cauſed him, however, to pay great attention to the forms of cryſtals: and may, in fact, be regarded as the germ from whence originated the more perfect cryſtallographic ſyſtem of De Liſle, and the ſubſequent brilliant diſcoveries of Haüy.

Cronſtedt, in an unacknowledged eſſay, ſtruck out a new path, and propoſed, that not only all the genera ſhould be conſtituted from the predominant or moſt notable principle of the body; but alſo, that the ſpecies ſhould be formed from the different combinations of that principle with others; thus reducing the whole ſyſtem of mineralogy to chemiſtry. The imperfection of chemical analyſis in his time, did not allow him to put this idea completely in practice; but the induſtry of his followers ſoon enabled Bergmann to complete the arrangement in his Sciagraphia Regni Mineralis. In which, however, we may obſerve, that the arrangement of the ſalts does not perfectly coincide with that of the other parts, nor with the original draught of Cronſtedt.

Previous to this finiſhing of Cronſtedt's ſyſtem, Wallerius, availing himſelf of the chemical labours of Pott, and of his own experiments, publiſhed an improved ſyſtem, which was, in its conſtruction, an improvement of that of Linnæus. The earths, which the latter had arranged as one of the orders of his third claſs, were promoted to the rank of a claſs, and placed at the head of the ſyſtem. The cryſtalliſed ſtones were put among their uncryſtalliſed congeners: in other reſpects, Wallerius's claſſification nearly agreed with that of Linnæus. The genera, however, of ſtones, and we may add, of earths, were more accurately defined according to their chemical properties. Notwithſtanding the improvements in mineralogy ſince the time of Wallerius, his work, on account of

of the copious information reſpecting every ſubſtance then known, and the multitude of ſynonyms it contains, muſt be conſidered as ſtill valuable, and diſplays great induſtry and extent of reading.

The accuracy which had been brought into chemiſtry by Cramer, and the introduction of the humid method of analyſis by Newmann and Marggraf (who may be regarded as the true founders of the modern experimental chemiſtry) having given a new impulſe to the ſcience, it became more known, and rapid improvements were made in it. Mineralogy, being connected with it, by conſidering the ſame ſubſtances, felt the benefit ariſing from theſe improvements. In every country, the activity of naturaliſts and chemiſts was directed to the diſcovery of new minerals, or to the analyſing of thoſe formerly known. Cronſtedt, who was moſt followed, had neglected the deſcription of minerals, and had given only the chemical characters of them; his editors therefore endeavoured to ſupply the deficiency. This led the celebrated Werner to attempt the formation of a new mineralogical language upon the plan of that which Linnæus had ſo ſucceſsfully introduced into botany. The terms he propoſed were eagerly adopted by his countrymen, and are certainly a great improvement; yet they are much inferior to their prototype, and in many caſes tranſgreſs againſt the rules laid down by Linnæus; which rules, although they are apparently confined to plants, are ſo truly excellent, that they ſhould be conſidered by writers on natural hiſtory, as applicable to every branch of that ſcience.

The deſcriptive language of mineralogy was not the only part which Werner laboured to improve; the arrangement of minerals alſo occupied his attention. From being the diſciple of Cronſtedt, he became the head of a ſchool, which pretends excluſively to two things; viz. the arranging of minerals in a natural order, and the determination of the ſpecies by their external characters only. So great indeed is the reliance he puts upon the external characters of minerals, eſpecially when corroborated by their native places, or, to ſpeak more properly, by the other minerals with which they are uſually found, that he does not ſcruple, occaſionally, either to doubt of the accuracy of thoſe chemical analyſes which appear to contradict his geognoſtic deductions, or to place in a genus ſome ſpecies which do not contain any of the ſimple ſubſtance from which the genus is denominated.

Karſten, however, paying more attention to the experiments of the chemiſts than to ſpeculations reſpecting the age and formation of the ſtrata of the globe, or the analogies founded

on the appearance of minerals, has, in his Mineralogiſche Tabellen, differed from Werner, ſo far as to place every ſpecies under the moſt predominant ſimple ſubſtance which it contains. To this arrangement, the celebrated Klaproth evidently leans.

At the ſame time that this new mineralogical ſchool was riſing in Germany, another of, at leaſt, equal celebrity was forming in France. Rome de Liſle endeavoured to arrange the ſeveral cryſtalline forms which minerals aſſume, under a few determinate ſimple ones; and in this reſearch met with great ſucceſs. Haüy ſucceeded him in the ſtudy of cryſtallography, and, in conſequence of ſlightly altering the theory of cryſtallization, made thoſe mathematical diſcoveries which have deſervedly procured him the fame he enjoys. Combining cryſtallography with chemiſtry, and with the moſt certain of the external characters, this philoſopher has given to the world a ſyſtem of mineralogy which, ſo far as ſimple minerals are concerned, is as yet unequalled.

Theſe are the more celebrated mineralogiſts who have preceded Profeſſor Jameſon: and of the merits of the foundations on which their ſyſtems are raiſed, it is neceſſary to ſay a few words, in order to form a better judgment of the work now under review. Theſe ſyſtems may in fact be reduced to three, being either chemical, cryſtallographic, or that of Werner, which may not improperly be conſidered as a ſyſtem *ſui generis:* each of theſe has its reſpective advantages and diſadvantages. By the chemical ſyſtems, a perſon can identify and arrange any mineral from a ſingle ſpecimen, however ſhapeleſs or imperfect it may be; but, on the other hand, they require the ſacrifice of a certain quantity of the mineral, which in unique ſpecimens is ſometimes an objection. This ſacrifice is not required in the cryſtallographic ſyſtems; in them, however, it is neceſſary to have at leaſt one well defined cryſtallized ſpecimen. Uncryſtallized minerals are not aſcertainable by this method, or can only be named and placed by analogy.

The ſyſtem of Werner is not, in general, properly underſtood. As it profeſſes to arrange minerals by their external characters only, it has been conceived to be the eaſieſt of any; whereas, in truth, it is the moſt difficult. If, as is moſt uſual, the ſtudent commences with only a few ſpecimens, he will find it utterly impoſſible to identify them by this method; which requires extenſive ſeries of minerals. Theſe ſpecimens being accurately compared together and arranged into diſtinct parcels, which form, as it were, central groups that paſs by intermediate ſhades into others; the ſtudent, by combining all the variations

tions which occur in each group, muſt form in his mind an ideal *picture* of it. This *picture* will of courſe be more perfect, as the ſeries of ſpecimens is the more numerous, ſo that the *ſuite of characters* belonging to it, and alſo the ſhades by which it is connected with other groups, can be determined with greater preciſion. This picture, being then compared with thoſe detailed in the ſyſtem, will, by its correſpondence with one of them, ſhew the place to which the group is intitled. As the groups into which the minerals known at preſent may be divided, appear, from the reſearches of Werner, to be above 360 in number, reckoning, as we muſt do, ſub-ſpecies and kinds; it may eaſily be conceived, that unleſs the ſtudent acquires ſome previous knowledge of the ſpecies by another ſyſtem, or by communication, he will meet with ſuch difficulties in identifying minerals by this method, that we do not wonder at the aſſertion of ſome of the Germans, that it is impoſſible to learn mineralogy by books. This ſeems to be the mature opinion of Werner, who now contents himſelf chiefly with lecturing on a very rich and inſtructive collection of minerals, and has not finiſhed a tranſlation of Cronſtedt's mineralogy, which he began twenty-five years ago. For the principal details reſpecting his ſyſtem, we are indebted to the book-making ſpirit of ſome of his pupils, and particularly of Emmerling, of whoſe *Lehrbuch der Mineralogie*, the preſent work is, for the moſt part, an unacknowledged tranſlation.

The ſyſtem of Werner, as it is chiefly founded on the natural alliances of minerals, ſtrongly reſembles the natural method of plants. Linnæus, however, thought it neceſſary to form an artificial ſyſtem, for the purpoſe of inveſtigating plants with more eaſe; in which ſtep, the generality of botaniſts have acquieſced. In imitation of this, Brunner lately attempted to introduce an artificial ſyſtem of minerals, founded entirely on the external characters, and which, of courſe, would facilitate the acquiſition of Werner's method. Profeſſor Jameſon, however, rejects this help with diſdain, although it appears to us abſolutely neceſſary to render the ſyſtem of Werner, in any meaſure, acceſſible to thoſe ſtudents who do not poſſeſs complete collections, or who cannot encounter the expence and ſpare the time neceſſary for a journey to Freyberg.

Such was the ſtate of mineralogy, when Profeſſor Jameſon announced the preſent work. His former publication on the mineralogy of the Scottiſh Iſles operated ſtrongly in his favour; and the Engliſh mineralogiſts waited with impatience for his elucidation of Werner's ſyſtem. Although it was known that he was a diſciple of that mineralogiſt, it was however hoped, that he would at leaſt be ſenſible of the defects of the

German ſyſtem, and that he would endeavour to give it all the improvements which the preſent ſtate of chemiſty, and of cryſtallography, would allow. It was alſo to be expected that he would afford ſome clew by which a ſtudent might be enabled to diſcover the ſpecies under which a mineral ought to be placed, without the labour of examining the whole ſyſtem from beginning to end, unleſs ſome felicitous circumſtance ſhould befriend his endeavours, and enable him to hit on the proper ſpecies at once. How greatly have the hopes of theſe expectants been deceived! Profeſſor Jameſon, it now appears, has drunk ſo deeply of the Wernerian ſpring, that he is not only incapable of ſeeing its defects, but is alſo inclined to undervalue the improvements which others have introduced into the ſcience. We have good reaſon to apprehend that even the friends of the author are much ſurprized at the abſence of thoſe improvements, which it was certainly incumbent on him to have inſerted, however he might prefer the arrangement of Werner.

The work commences with a preface, in which a ſlight hiſtorical ſketch is given of preceding mineralogical authors; in this, the firſt thing that ſtrikes us is the error committed either by the author, or the printer, in referring the titles of the books to the wrong authors. Thus in p. iii. the works of Scheuchzer are aſcribed to Büttner; and that of Büttner to Scheuchzer; ſo in p. vi. Cronſtedt is ſaid to have publiſhed, in 1758, a ſyſtem of mineralogy; viz. Syſtema Minerale, Berolini, 1748, 8vo; which we believe ought to be referred to Wolterſdorf, of whom the author had ſpoken in the preceding paragraph. Theſe errors appear to lie more on the printer: but it muſt be owned that, in many caſes, the expreſſions are extremely inaccurate. Cramer is ſaid, p. iv. to have publiſhed, in 1739, a ſyſtem of mineralogy; whereas it ſeems to us to refer merely to that arrangement of the ſubjects of the art of aſſaying, which is prefixed to his Elementa Artis Docimaſtices. In p. vii. Linnæus is ſaid to have publiſhed, in 1768, a ſecond edition of his Syſtema Mineralogicum; Wallerius, indeed, in the ſecond edition of his Regnum Minerale, altered the title to that of Syſtema Mineralogicum; but we know of no ſuch book by Linnæus. We have no doubt but that Profeſſor Jameſon means to ſay, Linnæus at that time did, in the twelfth edition of his Syſtema Naturæ, give an improved ſtate of the Regnum Lapideum. We need not, however, wonder at this laxity of citation, ſince, even in mentioning the principal work of Werner, Von der aufſerlichen Kennzeichen der Foſſilien, the word aufſerlichen (external) is omitted, although it is eſſentially neceſſary to the ſenſe. This work, which contains

tains very little more than the explanation of the terms uſed in the Freyberg ſchool, is compared, by Profeſſor Jameſon, to the Philoſophia Botanica, "in its moſt highly finiſhed ſtate;" although the latter (which we may alſo remark has undergone little or no alteration ſince its firſt publication) contains a vaſt fund of information in every part of botany.

In ſpeaking of the ſyſtem of Haüy, the author ſays,

"The ſpecies of ſimple minerals is determined from one character, which is ſtyled the integral mollecule. Hauy defines the mineral ſpecies to be Une collection des corps dont les mollecules integrantes ſont ſemblables, et compoſés des memes elements unie en memie proportion*. This integral mollecule, or kernel, is detected either by mechanical diviſion, or by meaſurement combined with calculation; and when found, is aſſerted to afford an invariable, eſſential character for the ſpecies. I cannot, however, ſubſcribe to this opinion: on the contrary, I venture to affirm, that it is not, in any inſtance, the type of the ſpecies, and that it only makes us acquainted with peculiarities in the ſtructure of a few cryſtallized minerals; peculiarities which may indeed be afterwards diſcovered in other ſpecifically diſtinct minerals. That it affords no eſſential characters is evident, becauſe different ſpecies, as diamond and ſpinelle, have the ſame integral mollecule; and other minerals, as zeolite, that unqueſtionably belong to the ſame ſpecies, have different integral mollecules. That it makes us acquainted with peculiarities in the ſtructure of but a few cryſtallized minerals, is ſhewn, 1. From the impoſſibility of detecting the integral mollecule by calculation combined with meaſurement; therefore all the ſpecies aſcertained by this method are to be expunged from the ſyſtem: 2. From many ſpecies having the ſame integral mollecule; and individuals of the ſame ſpecies having different mollecules. Thus it appears that its exiſtence as a peculiarity, remains but to a few ſpecies.

"That even this peculiarity, which we find in a very few cryſtallized minerals, may be diſcovered in others ſpecifically different, is proved from the caſe of diamond, ſpinelle, &c."

"It appears from this, that the integral mollecule cannot in any inſtance be conſidered as the type of the ſpecies; therefore the oryctognoſtic ſyſtem of Hauy, which is built on this ſuppoſition, muſt fall to the ground." Pref. p. xiii.

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* Haüy ſays (vol. i. p. 162) that the true idea of a ſpecies is, "Une collection de corps dont les molécules intégrantes ſont ſemblables, et compoſées des mêmes élémens unis en même proportion." So that in extracting this ſhort quotation, conſiſting only of nineteen words, Profeſſor Jameſon has, it appears, committed no leſs than ſix blunders. Why he perſiſts in miſpelling the word molecule, both in French and Engliſh, we cannot conceive. A Profeſſor of Natural Hiſtory ſurely cannot be ignorant that it is merely a diminutive of the Latin word *moles*.

To this paſſage there is added in a note:

"The inſtances of the inconſiſtencies that occur in the employment of the integral mollecule are numerous; but of theſe I ſhall only mention one. Zeolite is one of the moſt natural and beſt aſcertained ſpecies in the ſyſtem, and its ſubſpecies are connected together by agreements in oryctognoſtic and geognoſtic characters. Hauy having, however, found ſmall differences in the integral mollecules of theſe ſubſpecies, has divided it into four ſpecies. Spinelle and diamond are acknowledged by Hauy to have ſimilar integral mollecules, yet he conſiders them as diſtinct ſpecies, and diſtinguiſhes them from one another by hardneſs, and other external characters. Thus in one inſtance we find the integral mollecule aſſumed as of ſuperior characteriſtic importance to all the other external and geognoſtic characters combined; but in the other it yields even to a few of the other external characters."

In this extract, we know not which moſt to condemn, the confuſion in the arguments, or the miſrepreſentation of the ſyſtem which the author wiſhes to depreciate. A Regius Profeſſor in a Britiſh Univerſity here tells us, that the integral molecule is detected by meaſurement combined with calculation—then, that it is impoſſible to detect it in this manner—and laſtly, that when detected by that proceſs, the ſpecies muſt be expunged! As if this was not enough, and in order to reach the very achme of abſurdity, we are next told that an integral molecule, which is not common to ſeveral ſpecies of minerals, may notwithſtanding be found in ſeveral minerals ſpecifically different!!

That the ſyſtem of Haüy is miſrepreſented, no doubt can exiſt, if we compare the arguments with the very definition quoted by Profeſſor Jameſon. Haüy expreſsly mentions the chemical compoſition of the body as entering conjointly with the mode of cryſtallization, into his idea of a ſpecies; but this is totally neglected by the author, who further affirms that Haüy diſtinguiſhes ſpinelle and diamond by their hardneſs and other external characters. The fact, however, is, that the French mineralogiſt uſes their chemical compoſition for this purpoſe; the diamond being inſerted in the claſs of inflammables, and conſidered as pure cryſtallized carbone, while the ſpinelle is placed in the claſs of earthy minerals, as a combination of earths and a metallic oxide. The caſe of the zeoli e is merely a diſpute about words, ſince Profeſſor Jameſon himſelf makes nearly the ſame diſtinction among theſe ſtones. It appears, therefore, either that he has, by no means, made himſelf maſter of the very firſt principles of the ſyſtem he controverts; or, he is guilty of the moſt flagrant miſrepreſentation of it.

An

An introduction follows, in which the author treats of mineralogy in general. On which we ſhall only remark, that, it being well known that the great defect of Werner's ſyſtem was the want of ſome certain idea of what ought to be conſidered as a mineralogical ſpecies, it was certainly incumbent upon Profeſſor Jameſon to beſtow pains in order to elucidate this point. Although he owns this to be an important ſubject, he has paſſed it over in a very ſlight manner, and he informs us, that

"In the mineral kingdom each foſſil cannot be conſidered as an individual, but merely as a part of that immenſe individual, the globe; hence it is evident that, accurately conſidered, there exiſts but one mineral ſpecies, or individual, which is the *globe*." Introd. p. xxvi.

With this ſtrange notion in his head, we need not be ſurprized that he ſhould beſtow ſo little attention on the accurate determination of the ſpecies of minerals, or, that he ſhould be ſo fond of geology, in preference to mineralogy properly ſo called.

The "liſt of books quoted" ſucceeds, which we mention only to notice its ſcantineſs. It contains no more than fifteen works. The author, we muſt own, appears to be aſhamed of its ſcantineſs, and has, by the friendly aſſiſtance of his printer, contrived to make it fill two pages and an half. It would certainly admit of ſome diſpute, whether this expanſion has given it more conſequence, or rendered its ſcantineſs more viſible. What is not a little extraordinary, the works of Werner do not appear in it.

Theſe preliminaries being thus got through, the Profeſſor enters on the main object of his work, which it appears is to conſiſt of five parts; viz. oryctognoſie, geognoſie, mineralogical chemiſtry, mineralogical geography, and œconomical mineralogy. The preſent volume contains only the firſt of the four claſſes into which ſimple minerals are divided, according to the oryctognoſtic ſyſtem of Werner. The author ſays (p. xvii.) that the ſecond volume will contain the remaining three claſſes; and that in another will be contained the geognoſie. In theſe volumes, he promiſes to give an explanation of the terms he now uſes; ſome of which, he confeſſes, will be difficultly underſtood. On this ground, their explanation ſhould, by every rule of common ſenſe, have preceded their uſe, and not have been deferred to the contingent publication, at a diſtant period, of a future volume. Notwithſtanding this diviſion of the ſubject, Profeſſor Jameſon has, in the oryctognoſtic ſyſtem, not only given the external characters of

of minerals, but alſo ſome of the chemical, together with their conſtituent parts when known; likewiſe, ſketches of their geognoſtic ſituation, the place where found, and the uſes made of them; thus anticipating, in ſome meaſure, his ſubſequent diviſions.

We have, in the firſt place, a tabular view of the mineral ſyſtem in two columns, one of the Engliſh names, the other of the German. Of the propriety of ſome of the Engliſh names we ſhall hereafter ſpeak; but, at preſent, we ſhall only notice, that the author has not annexed any ſynopſis of the moſt eſſential characters to this liſt. As Mr. Jameſon is a Profeſſor of Natural Hiſtory in general, he cannot be ignorant of the great convenience of this practice, ſo conſtantly uſed in the Linnæan ſchool of Natural Hiſtory; to ſay nothing of its being alſo uſed by Haüy. All the new minerals, as cryolite, madreporite, pharmacolite, and many others, are omitted. Profeſſor Jameſon cannot be ignorant of them, becauſe Brochant has mentioned them in his appendix. It was not incumbent on the French author, who is profeſſedly the mere hiſtorian of what has been done in Germany, to aſſign their places in the ſyſtem; but the caſe is different with the preſent author, who certainly wiſhes to take a higher rank in mineralogy than that of a mere compiler. As Werner, however, has not yet given his judgment where they ſhould be placed, our learned and experienced mineralogiſt waits with patience, and expects his readers to do the ſame, until the Freyberg Profeſſor, or his echo, Emmerling, ſhall give the neceſſary information as to their arrangement, when Profeſſor Jameſon, who ſeems humbly content to march in their rear, will probably follow their motions.

The principal uſe of arranging ſubſtances in a ſyſtem, is, to be enabled to trace an unknown body, firſt, to its ſuperior genus, or claſs; and then, deſcending through the ſubaltern genera, to fix on the ſpecies; but, in the preſent work, none of the ſuperior diviſions, whether claſſes, genera, or families, have any characters given of them.

As the tabular view of the ſyſtem is defective, ſo the mineral ſyſtem itſelf is as unneceſſarily diffuſe. Linnæus, in his Philoſophia Botanica, is of opinion that the ſpecific differences ſhould be compriſed in as few words as poſſible, and imagines that in a genus containing one hundred ſpecies, they may be diſtinguiſhed by about twenty-four well choſen words; the diſciples of Werner, however, frequently employ as many ſcores of words. In the preſent work, quartz, in particular, occupies no leſs than twenty-five octavo pages, of which at leaſt one half is devoted to what Profeſſor Jameſon calls the

picture

picture of the ſpecies; yet he is ſo far from perceiving the impoſſibility of retaining ſo exceſſively complex a definition in the mind, that he views it with peculiar ſelf-complacency, and declares it to be "one of the moſt highly finiſhed pictures in the Wernerian oryctognoſie: Wiedenman, and other mineralogiſts, by attending only to a few of its leaſt characteriſtic tures, have failed in underſtanding it." In like manner, nearly thirty pages are devoted to lime-ſtone.

That we may not, however, be ſuppoſed to be too ſevere in our criticiſm, we ſhall now give a very copious extract of this part of the work. We chuſe the ruby family of the flint genus, as being one of the ſhorteſt families, and alſo one of which the individuals are in general well known.

"Eleventh ſpecies.—SPINELLE.

"Spinell.—Werner.

"Rubinus balaſſius, Rubinus ſpinellus, Wall. t. 1. p. 247.—Rubis ſpinelle octaedre, Rome d. L. t. 2. p. 224.—Spinel, and balaſs rubies, Kirw. vol. i. p. 253.—Spinell, Eſtner, b. 2. ſ. 73, Id. Emm. b. 1. ſ. 56. and b. 3. ſ. 252.—Rubino Spinello, Nap. p. 118.—Rubis, Lam. t. 2. p. 224. Spinell, Hauy and Brochant, ib. Bournon. Phil. Tranſ. 1792, Part 2. p. 305.

"External characters.

"Its principal colour is red, from which it paſſes on the one ſide into blue, and even into green, on the other into yellow and brown. From carmine red it paſſes on the one ſide into crimſon, cochineal, and cherry-red, and from this into plumb, violet, and indigo blue, and into a variety of green, which is very rare; on the other ſide it paſſes from carmine red through blood red into orange yellow, and from this into a middle colour, between clove brown and reddiſh brown. It occurs alſo reddiſh white.

"Its colours are moſtly deep, (the reddiſh white is the only pale colour,) and they have always a ſhade of black. Sometimes it is enveloped in an opaline cruſt; ſometimes it exhibits an opaleſcent irideſcence, and others when cut exhibit ſtars of three and ſix rays.

"It occurs in grains which, from their aſpect, ſhew that they have been rolled, alſo cryſtallized.

"1. Perfect octaedron.

"2. Lengthened, or cuneiform octaedron.

"3. When ſix faces of the perfect octaedron are enlarged at the expence of the other two, one in each pyramid, which at length intirely diſappear, a very acute rhomboid is formed.

"4. When four alternate planes of the octaedron grow large at the expence of the others, which at length diſappear, a tetraedron is formed: the tetraedron is ſometimes truncated on the angles, and often ſo deeply, that only thin ſegments remain.

"5. Sometimes the edges of the common baſis of the octaedron are truncated, and, in ſome varieties, ſo deeply, that a rectangular four-ſided priſm, acuminated by four planes, is formed.

"6. Sometimes

" 6. Sometimes all the edges of the octaedron are truncated. When theſe truncations become ſo large as to cauſe the original faces to diſappear, the garnet dodecaedron is formed.

" 7. Sometimes each of the angles of the octaedron are acuminated by four planes, which are placed on the lateral planes.

" 8. Six-ſided table, in which the terminal planes are ſet alternately ſtraight and oblique on the lateral planes. It may alſo be viewed as an octaedron, in which two diagonally oppoſite planes have increaſed very much in proportion to the others.

" 9. When two ſegments of the tetraedron are joined by their baſis, a twin cryſtal, having three re-entering angles, is formed.

" 10. When three ſegments are joined, a triple cryſtal is formed.

" The cryſtals are ſmall and very ſmall, very rarely middle-ſized, and probably all around cryſtallized.

" Planes generally ſmooth.

" Externally and internally its luſtre is ſplendent and vitreous.

" Fracture nearly perfectly flat conchoidal, and ſometimes imperfectly foliated.

" Fragments indeterminately angular, ſharp-edged.

" It alternates from tranſlucent to tranſparent.

" Hard in a high degree, but can be ſcratched by ſapphire.

" Not particularly heavy, approaching to heavy.

" Specific gravity, 3,700, Werner.—3,645, Hauy.—3,570, Klaproth.

" Chemical characters.—Before the blow-pipe it is unalterable without addition, but is fuſible with borax.

" Conſtituent Parts.

" Alumina	74,50		82,47
" Silica	15,50		
" Magneſia	8,25		8,78
" Oxyd of iron	1,50		
" Chromic acid			6,18
" Lime	0,75		
" Loſs			2,57
	100,50		100
	" Klaproth, t. 2. p. 10.		Vauquelin, J. d. M. N. 38. p. 89.

" Geognoſtic ſituation.—Werner is of opinion that it occurs in rocks belonging to the neweſt floetz trap formation. In the magnificent collection belonging to the Honourable Mr. Greville, are two intereſting ſpecimens which, although they do not enable us to aſcertain the repoſitory of the ſpinelle, make us acquainted with ſome of its accompanying foſſils. In one of the ſpecimens, cryſtals of ſpinelle are imbedded in calcareous ſpar, and accompanied with cryſtals of mica, magnetic pyrites, and a ſubſtance which Count de Bournon believes to be aſparagus ſtone: in the

the other, the ſpinelle is imbedded in adularia, and is accompanied with magnetic pyrites.

" Geographic ſituation.—It is found in the kingdom of Pegu, and in the iſland of Ceylon, accompanied with zircon, hyacinth, tourmaline, and ceylanite. Bournon.

" Uſe.—It is employed as a precious ſtone, and is of conſiderable value, but it has neither the hardneſs nor the fire of the oriental ruby.

" Obſervation.—When ſpinelle and oriental ruby of the ſame colour are cut, we can diſtinguiſh them from each other by the ſuperior hardneſs, and greater ſpecific gravity of the latter."

" Twelfth Species.—SAPPHIRE.

" Saphir.—Werner.

Saphirus, Wall, t. 1. p. 248.—Rubinus orientalis, Ibid. p. 247.—Topazius orientalis, Ibid. p. 251.—Rubis d'orient, R. de L. t. 2. p. 212.—Oriental ruby, ſapphire, and topaz, Kirw. t. 1. p. 250.—Sapphir, Eſtner, b. 2. f. 86. Id. Emm. b. 1. f. 67. & b. 1. f. 251.—Zaffiro et rubin-zaffiro, Nap. p. 113. and 121.—Saphir, Broch. t. 1. p. 207.—Teleſie, Hauy, t. 2. p. 480.—Perfect corundum, Greville and Bournon. London Philoſ. Tranſ. 1798 & 1802.

" External characters.

" Its principal colour is Berlin blue; but it occurs alſo red, and of all the intermediate varieties that exiſt between theſe two principal colours. It paſſes on the one ſide into indigo blue, on the other into azure, violet, lavender, lilac and ſky blue, and further into deep green; from the lilac blue it paſſes into peach-bloſſom red, crimſon red, cochineal red, and very rarely into carmine red; from the peach-bloſſom red it paſſes into roſe red and reddiſh white; it has been alſo obſerved yellowiſh white, and laſtly it paſſes from lavender blue into pearl grey, blueiſh grey, and blueiſh white.

" Werner ſuppoſes that the yellowiſh white may paſs into yellow.

" It is ſometimes found with two colours at once, as white and blue, and blue and red. Werner has in his poſſeſſion a ſapphire which is white in the middle, and at the one end blue, and at the other red.

" It occurs in ſmall rolled pieces, and cryſtallized. Its cryſtallizations are as follows:

" 1. Double three-ſided pyramid, in which the lateral planes of the one are ſet on the lateral edges of the other; or it may be conſidered as a ſlightly acute rhomboid.

" 2. The extremities of the pyramids (or the two diagonally oppoſite angles of the rhomboid) more or leſs deeply truncated, and ſometimes ſo deeply, that there is formed a ſix-ſided table, in which the terminal planes are ſet alternately oblique and ſtraight on the lateral planes.

" 3. Sometimes

" 3. Sometimes the common baſis of the pyramids is truncated, and in ſome varieties ſo deeply, that there is formed a rhomboidal ſix-ſided priſm, acuminated by three planes, which are ſet on the alternate lateral edges. The extremities of the acuminations are often truncated.

" 4. Perfect ſix-ſided priſm, which is ſometimes ſo ſhort that it forms a ſix-ſided table.

" 5. Six-ſided priſm truncated on the lateral and terminal edges, and on the alternate angles.

" 6. When the truncations on the terminal edges increaſe, there is formed a ſix-planed acumination.

" 7. When the priſm of the preceding figure diſappears, a more or leſs acute double ſix-ſided pyramid is formed. The extremities of the pyramid are uſually more or leſs deeply truncated; ſometimes truncated on the alternate angles which are formed by the meeting of the truncating plane and the acuminating planes, and very rarely with unaltered extremities.

" 8. More or leſs acute ſingle ſix-ſided pyramid, in which the extremity is uſually truncated, and ſometimes even the edges. In ſome rare varieties, the alternate angles, formed by the meeting of the truncating plane and the acuminating planes, and alſo the alternate angles of the baſis are truncated.

" 9. Single ſix-ſided pyramid flatly acuminated by three planes, which are ſet on the alternate lateral edges.

" Cryſtals ſmall and middle-ſized, and all round cryſtallized. The planes of the cryſtals are often tranſverſly ſtreaked, and, when freſh, are generally ſplendent.

" Internally its luſtre is ſplendent and vitreous.

" Fracture conchoidal in true ſapphire; in thoſe varieties which are denominated oriental ruby, it preſents a three-fold oblique angular cleavage, which is parallel with the ſides of the rhomboid.

" Fragments indeterminately angular.

" It is more or leſs tranſparent, even ſometimes paſſing to tranſlucent; and there are varieties that, when cut, and expoſed to the rays of the ſun, exhibit a ſtar of ſix rays.

" Hard in the higheſt degree, reſiſting the file, but yielding to the diamond.

" Eaſily frangible.

" It is heavy.

" Specific gravity—From 3,980 to 4,180, Werner:—3,994 to 4,283, Hauy:—4,000, Kirwan.—From 4,000 to 4,083, Hatchett & Greville:—3,907 to 4,161, Bournon.

" Conſtituent parts.

" Silica - - -	0 - - -	35,0
" Alumina - -	98,5 - - -	58,0
" Lime - - -	0,5 - - -	5,0
" Oxyd of iron -	1,0 - - -	2,0
	100	100

" Klaproth, t. 1. p. 88. Bergman.

" Sapphire.

	" Sapphire.	Oriental Ruby.
" Silica - - -	5,25	7,0
" Alumina - -	92,0	90,0
" Iron - - -	1,0	1,2
" Loſs - - -	1,75	1,8
	100,00	100,00

" Chenevix. Id.

" Chemical characters.—It is infuſible without addition before the blow-pipe, but with borax it melts without effervescence.

" Geognoſtic ſituation.—Werner ſuſpects that it occurs in rocks belonging to the neweſt floetz trap formation: and it would appear, from the obſervations of the honourable Mr. Greville and Count de Bournon, that it is alſo an inmate of granite, ſyenite, and other primitive rocks.

" Geographic ſituation.—It is found particularly beautiful in the kingdom of Pegu and iſland of Ceylon in the Eaſt Indies. It has been alſo diſcovered in Portugal; France, in the ſtream Expailly; alſo in Bohemia, near Meronith and Bilin, at the foot of trap rocks, and accompanied by hyacinth, pyrope, and iron ſand.

" Uſe.—Sapphire and oriental ruby are, next to the diamond, the moſt valuable of precious ſtones, and are uſed in the fineſt kind of jewellery.

" Obſervations.

" 1. Werner is of opinion that ſapphire and ſpinelle are very nearly allied, and that, in ſome inſtances, ſpinelle paſſes into ſapphire.

" 2. The oriental ruby, which is here arranged, in conformity to the method of Werner, along with the ſapphire, appears, from the obſervations of Count de Bournon, to be a diſtinct ſpecies.

" It differs from ſapphire in its colour ſuite, in having a diſtinct foliated fracture, in being ſofter, and poſſeſſing leſs ſpecific gravity; and in its geognoſtic character, as it occurs ſometimes imbedded in corundum, which is an inmate of primitive mountains, while ſapphire appears to be more a production of a later period.

" 3. The violet-coloured ſapphire is the oriental amethyſt; the yellow, the oriental chryſolite and topaz; and the green, the oriental emerald."

" Thirteenth ſpecies.—CORUNDUM.

" Korund.—Werner.

" Ib. Wid. f. 237.—Adamantine ſpar, Kirw. vol. i. p. 335.—Demant ſpath, Emm. b. 1. f. 9. & b. 3. f. 229.—Spato adamantino, Nap. p. 223.—Corindon, Lam. t. 2. p. 356.—Le Spath adamantine, Broch, t. 1. p. 356.—Corindon, Hauy, t. 3. p. 1.—Imperfect corundum, Greville and Bournon, Philoſ. Tranſ. 1798 & 1802.

" External

" External characters.

" Its colour is greeniſh white, of various degrees of intenſity, which paſſes into light greeniſh grey, and even into mountain and aſparagus green: it is ſometimes alſo pearl grey, which paſſes into fleſh red; and in ſome varieties it is reddiſh externally, but greeniſh internally.

" It occurs maſſive, diſſeminated, in rolled pieces, and cryſtallized. Its cryſtallizations are ſimilar to thoſe of ſapphire.

" The cryſtals are middle-ſized and imbedded.

" Externally, they are dull and rough.

" The luſtre of the principal and croſs fracture is ſhining and gliſtening, and is intermediate between vitreous and reſinous.

" The fracture is foliated, with a three-fold obliquely interſecting cleavage, and the cleavages are parallel with the planes of the rhomboid, or of the alternate angles of the ſix-ſided priſm: croſs-fracture is ſmall, and imperfectly conchoidal.

" Fragments rhomboidal.

" It ſhews a tendency to ſtraight lamellar diſtinct concretions.

" It is duplicating tranſlucent.

" Hard in a high degree, yielding a little to the file.

" Pretty eaſily frangible.

" Not particularly heavy, approaching to heavy.

" Specific gravity—3,710, Klaproth:—3,873, Hauy:—3,875, Bournon.

" Conſtituent parts.

" Corundum of the Carnatic		of Malabar.
" Silica	5,0	7,0
" Alumina	91,0	86,5
" Iron	1,5	4,0
" Loſs	2,5	2,5
	100	100

" According to Chenevix.

" Corundum of Bengal.	
" Alumina	89,50
" Silica	5,50
" Oxyd of Iron	1,25
" Loſs	3,75

" According to Klaproth.

" Geognoſtic ſituation.—It probably occurs imbedded in granite, ſienite, or green-ſtone, as the cryſtals of it are often found in a rock compoſed of felſpar, quartz, hornblende, and mica.

" Geographic ſituation.—It is found in the Carnatic, and on the coaſt of Malabar."

" Fourteenth ſpecies.—DIAMOND SPAR.

" Demant ſpath.—Werner.

" External characters.

" Its colour is dark hair brown.

" It

" It occurs maſſive, diſſeminated, in rolled pieces, and cryſtallized in

" 1. Six-ſided priſms; and in

" 2. Simple very acute ſix-ſided pyramids, having their extremities truncated.

" Internally its luſtre is ſplendent, and generally pearly, approaching in a ſlight degree to adamantine. When cut into a ſemicircular ſhape, and in ſuch a manner that the point of interſection of the three-fold cleavage occupies the middle of the ſurface, it preſents an opaleſcent ſtar of ſix rays, and a peculiar pearly light, which is of a copper-red colour.

" Fracture preſents a perfect obliquely interſecting three-fold cleavage.

" Fragments rhomboidal, but not ſo perfect as in corundum.

" It is tranſlucent on the edges.

" Hard in a high degree, yielding a little to the file.

" Eaſily frangible.

" It is not particularly heavy, approaching to heavy.

" Specific gravity—3,981.

" Conſtituent parts.

" Diamond ſpar of China.

" Alumina - - - - - - -	84,00
" Silica - - - - - - -	6,50
" Oxyd of iron - - - - -	7,50
" Loſs - - - - - - -	2,0
	100,0

" According to Klaproth.

" Geognoſtic ſituation.—Probably occurs in granite.

" Geographic ſituation.—Has been hitherto found only in China.

" Uſe.—Both diamond ſpar and corundum are employed in cutting and poliſhing hard minerals.

" Obſervations.

" 1. The great hardneſs of corundum and diamond ſpar, independent of their ſtrong affinity to ſapphire, may be conſidered as juſtifying their removal to the flint genus.

" 2. The compact corundum of Bournon is probably only a variety of the following ſpecies.

" 3. It is probable that diamond-ſpar is only a variety or ſubſpecies of corundum."

" Fifteenth ſpecies.—EMERY.

" Schmiergel.—Werner.

" External characters.

" Its colour is intermediate between greyiſh black and blueiſh grey.

" It occurs maſſive and diſſeminated; and the maſſive is ſometimes intermixed with other minerals.

" Its luſtre is gliſtening, paſſing into glimmering, and is adamantine.

" Fracture fine and ſmall grained, uneven; ſometimes even ſplintery.

" Fragments indeterminately angular, rather blunt-edged.

" It ſometimes ſhews fine-grained diſtinct concretions.

" Is ſlightly tranſlucent on the edges.

" Hard in a high degree, ſcarcely yielding to the file.

" Not very eaſily frangible.

" Heavy.

" Conſtituent parts.

" Alumina - - - - - - - -	86,0
" Silica - - - - - - - -	3,0
" Iron - - - - - - - - -	4,0
" Loſs - - - - - - - - -	7,0
	100

" According to Tennant, Philoſ. Tranſ. for 1802.

" Geognoſtic ſituation.—It occurs in beds of talc and ſteatite, and is frequently accompanied with calcſpar and blende.

" Geographic ſituation.—It is found at Ochſenkopf, near Schwartzenberg in Saxony; alſo in great quantity in the iſlands of the Helleſpontic Archipelago, particularly in the iſland of Naxos. It is ſaid alſo to occur in the iſles of Guernſey and Jerſey, on the coaſts of Normandy, and in Spain.

" Uſe.—It is uſed for cutting and poliſhing hard bodies: it is even employed for cutting ſapphire and oriental ruby.

" Obſervations.

" 1. Its high degree of hardneſs, and affinity to corundum, have induced me to give it its preſent place in the ſyſtem.

" 2. May not this, and the four preceding ſpecies, be arranged in the following order?

" Ruby family.

" Spinelle.

" Sapphire.

" a. Sapphire.

" b. Oriental ruby.

" Corundum.

" a. Common corundum.

" b. Diamond ſpar.

" c. Emery, or compact corundum.

" 3. Magnetic iron ſtone, and iron glance, from their being employed in place of emery in poliſhing hard bodies, have been confounded with it."—pp. 78—98.

From

From this extenſive extract, our readers will immediately ſee, that the preſent work, like all the writings of the ſame ſchool, is only a rude chaos of lengthened deſcriptions, without the leaſt clew by which a perſon might be enabled to grope his way through the immenſe maſs of words in which the ſubject is involved. As no diſtinction is made between the eſſential characters of a ſpecies and its accidental variations, the work is almoſt entirely uſeleſs to junior ſtudents; and although thoſe who bring to its peruſal a conſiderable previous acquaintance with minerals, may at firſt derive ſome pleaſure in having before them a detailed account of all the known variations of each ſpecies; yet even theſe will frequently be miſled by the confuſion that exiſts between the ſpecies. Thus, in the extract we have given, diamond ſpar is diſtinguiſhed from corundum: and yet the adamantine ſpar of Kirwan, Emmerling, Napioni, and Brochant, (all men well acquainted with Werner's arrangement,) is given as ſynonymous with corundum. We are alſo informed, that it appears from the Count de Bournon's obſervations that the ruby is a diſtinct ſpecies from the ſapphire; whereas that excellent mineralogiſt is decidedly of opinion, and has publiſhed a long paper in the Philoſophical Tranſactions (to which paper Profeſſor Jameſon refers) to prove, that they are only varieties of the ſame ſpecies, as is alſo corundum. It is at the ſame time ſtated, that corundum is an inmate of primitive mountains, while ſapphire appears to be of later production; yet, the Count deſcribes corundum as paſſing, in the very ſame ſpecimen, by inſenſible degrees, into ſapphire.

As to the language uſed in the deſcriptions, the author deprecates the ſeverity of criticiſm, until he has, in his future volumes, an opportunity of explaining it. We ſhould undoubtedly be inclined to accede to his wiſhes, if we could form the leaſt conception that any apology could be offered for many of the ſtrange expreſſions here uſed. What apology can he make for ſuch ill-conſtructed and diſguſting terms as, "not particularly difficultly frangible;" "not particularly heavy, approaching to heavy;" "manipularly aggregated:" "ſcopiformly aggregated;" "floriformly foliated;" or, what is ſtill more ridiculous, ſelenite, we are told, "is a little commonly flexible." When a line is viewed through certain tranſparent minerals, it appears double; to expreſs this phenomenon, he ſometimes ſays ſuch minerals are "duplicating refracting," or (as above, in corundum) "duplicating tranſlucent." How different are theſe pedantic phraſes from the neat and elegant terms uſed by Linnæus. Carnelian is ſaid to be "moſt commonly unſeparated, yet in ſome varieties it ſhows a tendency to concentric and

fortification-wiſe bent lamellar diſtinct concretions; and, according to the diſpoſition of theſe, the colour delineations are formed." This muſt, at all events, be called very affected language; yet, even this is but a ſmall fault in compariſon with the numerous Germaniſms, which, like the word "unſeparated," for compact, in the above paſſage, ſo frequently offend us. Of ſome very light foſſils we are told, that "they are ſwimming," inſtead of, that they will ſwim on water: ſo we have "mild," "all around cryſtallized," and other terms uſed in their German ſenſe. Among the colours of the diamond, ſnow-white is mentioned; and we are even told by Profeſſor Jameſon, that ſnow-white diamonds are the moſt valuable. This is, indeed, a new and unexpected piece of information; as we had always ſuppoſed, that the abſence of all colour, and a conſiderable degree of tranſparency (properties by no means belonging to ſnow) were the chief characters of fine diamonds.

It remains to ſay a few words reſpecting the names given to the ſubſtances. Theſe are all formed on the ſame preference of the German language; and are, in many caſes, mere literal tranſlations of Werner's names, without the leaſt regard to conſiſtency, or the analogies of our language; in others, they are altered with as little judgment. To take ſome of them as they occur in the ſyſtem.—We ſee no reaſon why Veſuviane ſhould in Engliſh have a final e. Thumerſtein derives its name from the town of Thum, and, when rendered into Engliſh, ſhould undoubtedly be Thum-ſtone, as Bath-ſtone, Portland-ſtone; unleſs we followed the Italians, and called it Thumite: Thumerſtone, uſed by Profeſſor Jameſon, is a verbal monſter, partly German and partly Engliſh. The wakke of the Germans is rendered wacce: ſurely the author cannot be ignorant that c is always ſoft before e; and, of courſe, the word, as it muſt now be pronounced wakſe, is entirely altered. Schillerſtein is rendered Schillerſtone, which is equally monſtrous as Thumerſtone. The k of the Germans is uſually converted into a c; but in cianit the reverſe takes place, for this is made into Engliſh by kyanite. The kalk geſchlect, kalk ſpath, kalk ſinter, and kalk tuff, of Werner, are made into calc genus, calc ſpar, calc ſinter, and calc tuf; all certainly objectionable, as we have no ſuch adjective as calc in our language, nor any word from which it can be properly derived. If Profeſſor Jameſon had uſed lime (which is ſignified by the German word) or even chalk, we might not have ſaid any thing againſt it; although we ſee no reaſon for throwing aſide our ancient names of calcareous earths, calcareous ſpar, or calcareous tophus. Schaum-earth is alſo a monſtrous compound,

pound, and cannot be allowed: ſo alſo is ſchaal-ſtone, which takes its name from its being compoſed of "lamellar diſtinct concretions," and might perhaps be properly called flake-ſtone. The Bologneſer ſpath of Werner is literally rendered Bologneſe ſpar; although it has always been called, Bolognian ſtone. In like manner, the German adjective, natürliches, is conſtantly tranſlated, natural; as, natural ſoda, natural ſulphur, and many others, inſtead of native. So the German word glanz (which ſignifies ſhining, brilliant, ſpecular) is as conſtantly rendered literally, glance, whether it be an adjective or a ſubſtantive; as glance coal, iron glance, lead glance, &c.: the ſame word is alſo uſed in ſilver glance, although Werner there uſes glaſerz, to which our uſual name of the mineral, viz. vitreous ſilver ore, is perfectly identical in meaning. In general, however, Profeſſor Jameſon follows his model with undeviating exactneſs, and the moſt Gothic want of taſte, as quickſilver horn ore, ſilver black, copper black, tile ore, copper emerald, hair pyrites, red iron froth, iron kidney. Becauſe our neighbours call the ſulphuret of quickſilver, zinnober, the author uſes cinnobar in lieu of cinnabar. So we have antimony ochre for antimonial, becauſe the German ſubſtantive happens in this inſtance to be uſed adjectively. Olivenerz, ſo called from its being of an olive-green colour, is rendered oliven ore. Although we are heartily tired of having nothing but ſuch egregious faults to point out, we cannot reſiſt producing one more ſpecimen of the little attention Profeſſor Jameſon has paid to propriety of ſpeech. A variety of the grey ore of antimony has, from its appearance, been long known by the name of plumoſe antimony: the Germans call it ſimply federerz, which the author, in defiance of every analogy on which the Engliſh language is founded, tranſlates "featheroſe grey antimony;" thus applying a termination peculiar to the Roman dialect of our tongue to a word taken from the Northern languages, and which would, of courſe, have required the derivative to be feathery or feather-like.

Eleven plates are annexed to this volume, which are very neatly executed on the part of the engraver. Nine of them exhibit the principal cryſtalline forms of the earthy foſſils. They are moſtly taken, as the author confeſſes, from Haüy and Bournon. It is to be obſerved, that theſe two celebrated mineralogiſts uſe two different methods in pourtraying the forms of cryſtals, and hence we can moſtly tell by inſpection from which of them the ſeveral figures are taken. The Count de Bournon's, as thoſe of ſpinelle and ſapphire, want the dotted lines that mark out the planes which lie behind; but, as Profeſſor Jameſon has taken out of Haüy's figures the inſcribed

primitive forms, ſhould he not, at the ſame time, have added to the former thoſe dotted lines, and thus have rendered his figures ſimilar in their conſtruction to one another. The tenth plate exhibits what is called "the colour ſuite" of the ſapphire, and of the diamond; and the eleventh ſhows the natural alliances of ſilver ores with other metallic minerals. We much approve of this manner of exhibition; and wiſh to ſee it extended, not only throughout the whole mineral ſyſtem, but alſo through every department of natural hiſtory. It is, however, more advantageous for the ſtudent to draw up theſe tables himſelf, than merely to examine thoſe drawn up by others.

We muſt not omit noticing the great want of an index, which, when volumes are publiſhed ſeparately, ought certainly to be affixed to each. The difficulty of finding any ſpecies is increaſed by the different mode of numbering them, as uſed in the tabular view, and in the ſyſtem itſelf. In the former, the ſpecies are numbered in continuation; in the latter, a freſh ſeries of numbers commence with each genus. A table of errata is alſo much wanted, as the errors of the preſs are not a few, particularly in the ſtatements of the conſtituent parts, and in the numerals. We allude particularly to pp. 354, 371, 406; eſpecially the firſt, which ſurely could not have had the leaſt correction beſtowed upon it; any more than p. 265, where, although the ſynonyms are conſtantly printed in a ſmaller type than the other parts, we find a whole line of deſcription, in the larger type, ſtuck in among them: from whence this has wandered we have not yet diſcovered.

The careful peruſal of Mr. J.'s work has confirmed us in the opinion we have long entertained, that the mineralogical language of the Freyberg ſchool is well adapted for deſcribing individual minerals, or for giving an oryctographic deſcription of any particular country; the oryctognoſtic ſyſtem of Werner certainly exhibits alſo, in ſome degree, the natural alliances between minerals; but it is totally inapplicable to a determination of the ſpecies, in the firſt inſtance, and of courſe unfit for elementary inſtruction in mineralogy, however it may extend the knowledge of thoſe who have already made a conſiderable progreſs in the ſcience.

We cannot conclude without remarking the ſtriking difference between the manner in which the language and ſyſtem of Werner are explained to the French and to the Engliſh. Brochant, in his *Elemens de Mineralogie*, has given a very candid and fair ſtatement of the doctrines of the Freyberg ſchool of mineralogy, in plain and intelligible language, without any pretenſions to ſuperior knowledge, or any abuſe of other

other ſyſtems, but ſeeks for illuſtration wherever it could be found. Profeſſor Jameſon, on the contrary, ſeldom omits an opportunity of finding fault with his fellow-labourers in the ſcience, and rejects their improvements with diſdain; at the ſame time he has, by his groſs inaccuracies, his perpetual Germaniſms, and his inelegant and ungrammatical compound terms, &c. given ſuch a delineation of it as will, we think, inſtead of increaſing the number of its followers, occaſion every perſon who becomes acquainted with it only through the medium of his work, to turn from it with diſguſt.

ART. CXCVII. *Friendly Admonitions to Parents, and the Female Sex in general; with Reflections on Moral and Religious Subjects. By Charlotte Badger, late Charlotte Wainwright.* 8vo. pp. 162. price 6s. Cadell and Davies, London. 1803.

THE eſſays contained in this volume are eight in number, and treat on the following ſubjects: 1. Female Education; 2. Reflections on Stability; 3. The Neceſſity of Employment; 4. Friendſhip; 5. Senſibility; 6. The Abuſe of Inferior Animals; 7. The Power of Conſcience; 8. Religion.—Our readers will be well aware that theſe topics have been ſo frequently handled, that their diſcuſſion cannot be expected to furniſh any great abundance of new ideas. And in truth we do not recommend Mrs. B.'s lucubrations as diſtinguiſhed by the grace of originality of thought. But we feel ourſelves authorized to beſtow upon them the praiſe of correctneſs of judgment and ſoundneſs of principle. They are calculated to inſpire thoſe who peruſe them with the ſeriouſneſs of reflection; and their utility is not diminiſhed by any affectation, or (with few exceptions) by incorrectneſs in point of ſtyle. In the firſt eſſay, we have to regret a want of method, which cauſes many excellent remarks on the prevalent errors in female education to appear to much diſadvantage. The reſt of her diſquiſitions are however more clearly arranged.

As a ſpecimen of her manner, we ſhall tranſcribe her reflections "on the neceſſity of employment."

"It is a maxim of high antiquity, which experience daily verifies, that "Idleneſs is the root of all evil," for undoubtedly many of the ſerious ills of life either originate from, or are augmented by a want of employment. Both mental and bodily diſeaſes frequently ſpring from this ſource; but even when produced by any other cauſe, they cannot fail of being materially aggravated by voluntary inactivity.

"There are numbers in the world who cannot afford to be idle, but there are perhaps as many whose rank or wealth exempts them from the neceſſity of lucrative labour; for theſe, ſports and diverſion have been invented, which, though not of equal uſe to the world with manual trades, are nevertheleſs equally fatiguing to thoſe who practiſe them, and differ only in this point, that whereas one is an act of compulſion, the other an act of choice.

"The man of rank and fortune, who voluntarily incurs fatigue, can have no other motive than the preſervation of his health*. The fabric of the body demonſtrates the neceſſity of action, and though ſome conſtitutions require leſs exertion than others, yet total inactivity muſt be detrimental to every one. But even ſuppoſing a few conſtitutions to be ſo framed as to require no exerciſe, even in this caſe what advantage is to be derived from total inactivity? Eaſe is the utmoſt that can be hoped from it, a kind of neutral ſtate between pain and pleaſure; nor can this neutrality remain long, for nothing terreſtrial can be kept at a ſtand; and, conſequently, if eaſe is inſufficient to balance the ſcale in favour of pleaſure, the balance of pain muſt ſoon preponderate. In general, however, indeed with very few exceptions, exerciſe is ſo neceſſary for the preſervation of health, that almoſt any occupation, however unpleaſant or formidable, is happier and ſafer than a life of ſloth. Numberleſs diſeaſes are generated from inactivity. When the vital powers are unexcited by action, they naturally grow languid, and as that languor increaſes, health becomes gradually diminiſhed: in ſhort, it has been ſaid that many acute, and all chronical diſorders, owe their origin to indolence. Exerciſe cannot ſecure us from that diſſolution to which we are decreed; but though the dart of death comes from Heaven, it is generally our own miſconduct that poiſons it.

"If inactivity is ſo prejudicial to the body, we may reſt aſſured that it is not leſs ſo to the mind; our whole time cannot be ſpent in exerciſe, leiſure hours muſt occur, and every means ſhould be employed to exclude idleneſs from our ſolitary moments, in which our minds are the moſt likely to be expoſed to the force of thoſe paſſions which are principally nouriſhed, and which frequently originate entirely from a want of occupation: for it is a known fact, that wild wiſhes and vain imaginations never take ſuch firm poſ-

"* A friend tells us that this aſſertion is rather too ſtrong: to health ſhould be added *faſhion*. The old Duke of Grafton, with a robuſt conſtitution, and uninterrupted health, loved eaſe and ſleep of a winter's morning better than the muſic of the horns and the hounds; yet he thought it neceſſary for a man of his rank and fortune to be a ſportſman, and to keep and follow a pack of fox-hounds: he therefore ordered his ſervants to call him at five o'clock in the morning on days of chaſe, and to pull him out of bed and dreſs him, though he ſhould reſiſt or be unwilling to wake. In this order his Grace was implicitly obeyed, though he defended himſelf from the aſſailants with blows and imprecations."

ſeſſion

ſeſſion of the mind, as when it is found vacant. The old ſaying, that "nature abhors a vacuum," may be juſtly applied to the intellect, which will embrace any thing, however abſurd or criminal, rather than remain wholly without an object. Example certainly carries great weight with it, and has been known to lead men into numberleſs errors and difficulties; but idleneſs has equal, if not ſuperior powers; and were thoſe who were wandering in the labyrinth of vice, or labouring under the ſtings of conſcience, to trace their ſufferings to their proper ſource, it is more than probable that they would be found to have originated from an unfortunate hour, when too much leiſure had expoſed the mind to the incurſions of vice.

"The miſery attendant on idleneſs cannot be too ſtrongly inforced, eſpecially on the minds of women, whoſe general ſyſtem of life, as well as the weakneſs of their ſex, debar them from many of thoſe purſuits, which help to diverſify the employments of men. A girl ſhould be taught betimes the art of amuſing herſelf in her recluſe and leiſure hours, and too much praiſe cannot be beſtowed on thoſe, who, by inventing various works of ingenuity, have materially helped to exclude that ennui from domeſtic leiſure, which is always an enemy to comfort, and frequently the forerunner of miſery. Women who have a taſte for literary purſuits, whoſe underſtandings riſe ſuperior to the generality of their ſex, and whoſe talents have been properly cultivated, can never be at a loſs for amuſement: but others, whoſe genius is more confined, who have no taſte for the polite arts, and whoſe minds are naturally ſo barren, as to be incapable of bearing any choice fruits; how could they find employment in their leiſure hours; how could they amuſe themſelves in ſolitude; was it not for certain works of ingenuity which are adapted to every capacity, and every condition? Even common needle-work may be conſidered as a guardian of the female mind, a ſecurity againſt that moſt dangerous enſnarer,—idleneſs.

"Could revenge penetrate my boſom, and had I the power of exerciſing it on my bittereſt enemy, the firſt wiſh of my heart would be to ſubject him to the dominion of idleneſs, the forerunner of every evil; even in old age, when moſt of the turbulent paſſions may be at reſt, it incapacitates the ſoul for thoſe reflections, which may be conducive to its eternal welfare; neither age nor infirmity can produce a complete vacuum in an active mind, a mind that from its infancy has been accuſtomed to find amuſement for itſelf. Many there are, who, labouring under the ſevereſt mental afflictions, which are far more powerful and dreadful in their effects than the moſt acute bodily diſeaſes, have even ſecured themſelves againſt the approach of inſanity, by trivial employments; the mind, in ſhort, muſt be occupied, and if not employed innocently and rationally, muſt inevitably fall a prey to thoſe temptations, which our ſpiritual enemy throws in the way of idleneſs.

"Inexcuſable are thoſe parents and governeſſes, who neglect to fortify the mind againſt this bitter enemy to its peace; youth is the ſeaſon

ſeaſon for improvement, and for implanting thoſe ſeeds, which, without an early cultivation, can never come to perfection. Cuſtom is ſecond nature, and to thoſe who from their infancy have been never ſuffered to indulge themſelves in idleneſs, employment will become ſo habitual, that they will never find themſelves overpowered by liſtleſſneſs and low ſpirits, nor at a loſs for occupation.

ART. CXCVIII. *Select Icelandic Poetry. Tranſlated from the Originals, with Notes.* Part I. 8vo. pp. 140. Price 6*s.* Reynolds, London. 1804.

FROM an Engliſh proſe, and a Daniſh poetical, addreſs, to the Honourable C. Anker of Copenhagen, we learn that the author of the preſent tranſlation is Mr. William Herbert; and we rejoice that Icelandic poetry, intereſting on ſo many accounts to us, has at length met with an able tranſlator. It appears that there are ſeveral volumes printed in the Icelandic language; and that a great number of old manuſcripts ſtill remain unpubliſhed. Mr. Cottle, in 1797, publiſhed a tranſlation of the Edda; which is a collection of old Icelandic odes, made by Sæmund, an eccleſiaſtic who flouriſhed in the eleventh century, and who wrote alſo a hiſtory of Norway, from Harald Harfagre, or the Fair-hand, to Magnus the Good. It appears that Sæmund was actuated by a wiſh to preſerve the remembrance of the mythology of his forefathers, and therefore made a collection of the moſt remarkable of the popular tales in a manuſcript, which remained for ages unpubliſhed; and was at length, in the early part of the ſeventeenth century, communicated to the public by Bryniolfus Svenonius, Biſhop of Skalholt, under the name of the Edda of Sæmund. It appears, alſo, that there was a Latin tranſlation made of them at the ſame time.

In the preſent volume, Mr. Herbert has only given us one complete tranſlation from the Edda, the ſong of Thrym; but he has undoubtedly choſen the beſt. As it is in itſelf very amuſing, and as it will enable our readers to form a compariſon between Mr. Herbert and Mr. Cottle, as tranſlators, we ſhall extract the whole of it.

"Wrath waxed Thor, when his ſleep was flown,
And he found his truſty hammer gone;
He ſmote his brow, his beard he ſhook,
The ſon of earth gan round him look;
And this the firſt word that he ſpoke;
'Now liſten what I tell thee, Loke;
Which neither on earth below is known,
Nor in heaven above;—my hammer 's gone.'

Their

Their way to Freyia's bower they took,
And this the firſt word that he ſpoke;
'Thou, Freyia, muſt lend a winged robe,
To ſeek my hammer round the globe.'

"FREYIA *ſung.*

" 'That ſhouldſt thou have, though 'twere of gold,
And that, though 'twere of ſilver, hold.'
Away flew Loke; the wing'd robe ſounds
Ere he has left the Aſgard grounds,
And ere he has reach'd the Jotunheim bounds.
High on a mound in haughty ſtate
Thrym the king of the Thurſi ſate;
For his dogs he was twiſting collars of gold,
And trimming the manes of his courſers bold."

"THRYM *ſung.*

" 'How fare the Aſi? the Alfi how?
Why com'ſt thou alone to Jotunheim now?'

"LOKE *ſung.*

" 'Ill fare the Aſi; the Alfi mourn;
Thor's hammer from him thou haſt torn.'

"THRYM *ſung.*

" 'I have the Thunderer's hammer bound
Fathoms eight beneath the ground;
With it ſhall no one homeward tread,
Till he bring me Freyia to ſhare my bed.'
Away flew Loke: the wing'd robe ſounds,
Ere he has left the Jotunheim bounds,
And ere he has reach'd the Aſgard grounds.
At Midgard Thor met crafty Loke,
And this the firſt word that he ſpoke;
'Have you your errand and labour done?
Tell from aloft the courſe you run:
For ſetting oft the ſtory fails,
And lying oft the lie prevails.'

"LOKE *ſung.*

" 'My labour is paſt, mine errand I bring;
Thrym has thine hammer, the giant king:
With it ſhall no one homeward tread,
Till he bear him Freyia to ſhare his bed.'
Their way to lovely Freyia they took,
And this the firſt word that he ſpoke;
'Now, Freyia, buſk as a blooming bride;
Together we muſt to Jotunheim ride.'
Wrath waxed Freyia with ireful look;
All Aſgard's hall with wonder ſhook;—
Her great bright necklace ſtarted wide.
'Well may ye call me a wanton bride,
If I with ye to Jotunheim ride.'
The Aſi did all to council croud,
The Aſiniæ all talk'd faſt and loud;

This

This they debated, and this they fought,
How the hammer of Thor ſhould home be brought.
Up then and ſpoke Heimdallar free;
Like the Vani, wiſe was he:
'Now buſk we Thor, as a bride ſo fair;
Let him that great bright necklace wear;
Round him let ring the ſpouſal keys,
And a maiden kirtle hang to his knees,
And on his boſom jewels rare;
And high and quaintly braid his hair.'
Wrath waxed Thor with godlike pride:
'Well may the Aſi me deride,
If I let me be dight, as a blooming bride.'
Then up ſpoke Loke, Laufeyia's ſon;
'Now huſh thee, Thor; this muſt be done:
The giants will ſtrait in Aſgard reign,
If thou thine hammer doſt not regain.'
Then buſk'd they Thor, as a bride ſo fair,
And the great bright necklace gave him to wear;
Round him let ring the ſpouſal keys,
And a maiden kirtle hang to his knees,
And on his boſom jewels rare;
And high and quaintly braided his hair.
Up then aroſe the crafty Loke,
Laufeyia's ſon, and thus he ſpoke;
'A ſervant I thy ſteps will tend,
Together we muſt to Jotunheim wend.'
Now home the goats together hie;
Yoked to the axle they ſwiftly ply.
The mountains ſhook, the earth burn'd red,
As Odin's ſon to Jotunheim ſped.
Then Thrym the king of the Thurſi ſaid;
'Giants, ſtand up; let the ſeats be ſpread:
Bring Freyia, Niorder's daughter, down,
To ſhare my bed from Noatun.
With horns all gilt each coal-black beaſt
Is led to deck the giant's feaſt:
Large wealth and jewels have I ſtor'd;
I lack but Freyia to grace my board.'
Betimes at evening they approach'd,
And the mantling ale the giants broach'd.
The ſpouſe of Sifia ate alone
Eight ſalmons, and an ox full-grown,
And all the cates on which women feed;
And drank three firkins of ſparkling mead.
Then Thrym the king of the Thurſi ſaid,
'Where have ye beheld ſuch a hungry maid?
Ne'er ſaw I bride ſo keenly feed,
Nor drink ſo deep of the ſparkling mead.'
Then forward leant the crafty Loke,
And thus the giant he beſpoke;

'Nought

'Nought has ſhe ate for eight long nights,
So did ſhe long for the nuptial rites.'
He ſtoop'd beneath her veil to kiſs,
But he ſtarted the length of the hall, I wiſs.
'Why are the looks of Freyia ſo dire?
It ſeems as her eye-balls gliſten'd with fire.'
Then forward leant the crafty Loke,
And thus the giant he beſpoke;
'Nought has ſhe ſlept for eight long nights,
So did ſhe long for the nuptial rites.'
Then in the giant's ſiſter came,
Who dar'd a bridal gift to claim:
'Thoſe rings of gold from thee I crave,
If thou wilt all my fondneſs have,—
All my love and fondneſs have.'
Then Thrym the king of the Thurſi ſaid;
'Bear in the hammer to plight the maid;
Upon her lap the bruizer lay,
And firmly plight our hands and fay.'
The Thunderer's ſoul ſmil'd in his breaſt,
When the hammer hard on his lap was plac'd;
Thrym firſt the king of the Thurſi he ſlew,
And ſlaughter'd all the giant crew.
He ſlew that giant's ſiſter old,
Who pray'd for bridal gifts ſo bold.
Inſtead of money and rings, I wot,
The hammer's bruiſes were her lot.
Thus Odin's ſon his hammer got."

Mr. Herbert informs us, that in his tranſlations he has aimed at cloſeneſs rather than ornament, though it would have been eaſier to adorn than to copy faithfully. In this we think he has been perfectly right; for, in theſe literary curioſities, the great pleaſure, to thoſe unacquainted with the original language, is, to have a tranſlation as much reſembling it as poſſible. Mr. Cottle appears to have tranſlated from the Latin, inſtead of the original Icelandic; and certainly, we do not diſcover, in his "Ode of Thrym on the recovery of the Mallet," the ſame energetic harmony and ſpirit as in Mr. Herbert's. Let ſuch of our readers as have not got Mr. Cottle's book in their libraries, judge for themſelves from the following extracts, which are not partially ſelected.

"Thor, upriſing from his bed,
Finds his truſty mallet fled!
Stormy paſſion rends his ſoul;
Fierce his flaſhing eye-balls roll;
From his heaving breaſt uprear'd,
Guſty whirlwinds ſhake his beard;
With bootleſs ſearch he gropes around;
Then ſmites his head, and ſtamps the ground.

Furiouſly

Furiouſly his voice he lifts,—
Rocks reſound, and mountain clifts;
Haſten, Lok! behold a crime
Yet *uncatalogued* in time!"

In this paſſage, beſides a general turgidneſs, our readers cannot but remark, that Lok muſt have had good eyes to behold a crime which conſiſted in the *abſence* of the mallet; and that the epithet affixed to the crime is more worthy of an auctioneer, or a bookſeller, than a poet.

In his note on v. 13 and 14, Mr. Herbert remarks it as a curious fact, that ſilver is here mentioned as preferable to gold, and he believes intentionally; for he obſerves, that gold is frequently ſpoken of by the old Icelandic poets, and ſilver very rarely; and that many utenſils of gold have been dug out of the earth in the Northern countries, but very few of ſilver. Mr. Cottle, from the mode in which he has tranſlated this paſſage, was evidently unaware of this circumſtance:

"Though form'd of ſilver were their mold,
And every feather tipt with gold."

We beg our readers to compare Mr. Herbert's tranſlation, line 43, &c. with the following extract from Mr. Cottle's; they would hardly gueſs that they are both tranſlations from the ſame original:

"To beauteous Freya ſoon they brought
Tidings with no joyance fraught.
Thor commands the unwilling fair
Nuptial garments to prepare:
Together we, the hero cry'd,
Muſt to the Jötni regions ride.
"Paſſion in Freya's cheek glow'd hot;
Cold tremors through her boſom ſhot:
To her wan eye the tidings threw
On all things round a ſaddening hue:
The heaving *bracelet* on her *breaſt*
The ſorrows of her ſoul confeſt.
But yet, ſhe cries, I'll not refuſe
Man's beſt privilege to uſe;
Conſent with you to go I give
To confines where the Jötni live."

Barely noticing the inaptitude of the epithet *wan* applied to the eye, the groſs impropriety of ſuppoſing a bracelet to be worn on the breaſt, and the general feebleneſs of the whole paſſage, contraſted with the ſpirit of Mr. Herbert's tranſlation, we with to know what Freya means by *not refuſing to uſe man's beſt privilege*; and we with to aſk Mr. Cottle how he comes to make Freya conſent to go, when the whole ſequel of the ſtory

depends on her refuſing to go? Why alſo, in his 22d ſtanza, does he make Thor, inſtead of Thrym, addreſs the Thurſori. This error throws ſuch an obſcurity over the paſſage, that we defy any one to underſtand it.

We think our readers muſt be by this time convinced of the marked inferiority of Mr. Cottle's tranſlation to that of Mr. Herbert: we will, however, treat them with one more ſpecimen:

> " Thrym, by doubts no more perplex'd,
> Thus his ſons around addreſs'd;—
> The mallet hither bring, *my boys*,
> To conſecrate our nuptial joys:
> Place that dread *contunder* there
> Safe in the ſoft lap of my fair.
> Now the bridal bed array:
> Haſte, my children, no delay."

Great, indeed, are our obligations to Mr. Herbert when we compare him with his predeceſſor; and we hope he will ſoon give us the remainder of the Edda in the ſame ſtyle of ſpirit and excellence.

The other poems which Mr. Herbert has publiſhed in this firſt part are; The Battle of Hafur's Bay, The Deſcent of Odin, The dying Song of Aſbiörn, Gunlaug and Rafen, The Combat of Hialmar, The Song of Hroke the Black, The Death of Hacon, and a Fragment of Biarkamal.

The Deſcent of Odin is an old Icelandic ode in Sæmund's Edda, and is already well known to the Engliſh public by Mr. Gray's beautiful imitation of it;

> " Uproſe the king of men with ſpeed,
> And ſaddled ſtrait his coal-black ſteed," &c. &c.

Mr. Herbert merely gives a tranſlation of the commencement of the ode, which Mr. Gray has omitted, having made his imitation from the quotation in Bartholinus, who did not publiſh the whole poem. Theſe introductory ſtanzas will be found uſeful in making that beautiful fragment of Gray's more intelligible. Mr. Cottle, alſo, has tranſlated this ode, but " has taken ſuch liberties with the Icelandic poetry and mythology, which in ſome places he has purpoſely amplified, and in others miſunderſtood, that if he had publiſhed his work as original, he could ſcarcely have been accuſed of plagiariſm.

Mr. Herbert has enriched his work with an abundance of curious and learned notes. In one of them is contained the following extract from Baron Holberg's reign of king Canute concerning the prevalence of the Icelandic language in England:

" It is to be remarked, that various languages were uſed in Great Britain, from the firſt arrival of the Anglo Saxons. The Engliſh tongue, or that which was ſpoken by the Angli, differed very little from

from the Daniſh, becauſe the Angli came from Jutland; on which account their language was alſo called, by ancient writers, Cimbric or Gothic. This language was ſpoken in the provinces which lay North of the river Thames, as the Saxon was in the South. Although they differed from each other, yet the diſtinction was not ſo great, but that each of them could be underſtood by both nations, the Angli and the Saxons. Theſe languages flouriſhed together in the country, till the heptarchy was aboliſhed, and the ſeven ſmall kingdoms united; for then the Saxon began to prevail together with the Saxon kings, and the Engliſh or Daniſh fell gradually into diſuſe. But afterwards, when a new ſwarm of Danes eſtabliſhed in the country, the Daniſh came into uſe again, although it was not the ſame which the Angli or South Jutlanders had brought with them; ſo that there may be reckoned three diſtinct tongues, beſides the Britiſh or Welch language, namely, the Engliſh or old Daniſh, the Saxon, and the new Daniſh; which laſt was principally ſpoken in Northumberland, Eaſt Anglia, and Mercia, of which the Danes had gained poſſeſſion. At laſt, as the Daniſh was the language of the court under Canute the great and his two ſucceſſors, the other provinces, even the Weſt Saxons, were forced to accuſtom themſelves to the Daniſh dialect then in faſhion; ſo that the old Weſt Saxon tongue was corrupted by the Daniſh, as we now ſee the Daniſh corrupted, and likely to be completely changed, by the German, which is at preſent the court language of the country: for the court is the principal ſchool for language, as all affect to ſpeak the ſame, or at leaſt attempt to introduce words or expreſſions from it into the general tongue. So it happened with the Daniſh under the three Daniſh kings: but when their rule had ended, and Edward the Confeſſor acceded to the throne, the Saxon became the language of the court again, until William the Conqueror gained poſſeſſion of England, and introduced the Norman tongue, which was a mixture of Daniſh and French. The Engliſh of the preſent day is a compoſition of all theſe languages. *Holbergs Dannemarks riges Hiſtorie*, 1. 150."

In the note, p. 30, Mr. Herbert endeavours to prove that rings and money were terms uſed indiſcriminately among the antient inhabitants of the North: we cannot help thinking that the line,

"Inſtead of money and rings," &c.

is the very reverſe of a confirmation of this opinion; for if they were the ſame thing, it is tautological to mention them both.

ART. CXCIX. *Marſhall's Life of General Waſhington, Vol. II.*
(Concluded from p. 85.)

GENERAL HOWE, having been thus compelled to evacuate Boſton, withdrew his forces to Halifax. Apprehenſive that the Britiſh commander would endeavour to eſtabliſh himſelf in New York or its vicinity, General Waſhington no ſooner

ſooner ſaw the enemy's fleet ſet ſail from Nantaſket road, than he cauſed his army to march by diviſions to the protection of that town. Many reaſons concurred to render the occupation of New York an object of the higheſt importance. Situated in the centre of the American colonies, it was a poſt from which a hoſtile expedition might with the greateſt facility be directed to the eaſtward againſt New England, to the northward againſt the province of New York, or to the weſtward againſt the Jerſeys. The Hudſon river, of which it is the key, opened to an invading army a ready acceſs to the interior of the Continent, and promiſed to the Britiſh a moſt advantageous communication with Canada. Being fully aware that theſe circumſtances would by no means eſcape the penetration of the Britiſh general, and that the conteſt muſt be renewed in York Iſland or in the adjacent diſtrict, General Waſhington aſſiduouſly employed his troops in throwing up the requiſite fortifications, and in ſtrengthening his poſitions in the ſcene of future action.

Whilſt the American commander-in-chief was thus occupied in preparations for defence, the moſt daring political projects engaged the attention of Congreſs. There is reaſon to ſuppoſe, that at the commencement of the diſputes between Great Britain and her Colonies, few if any of the inhabitants of the latter entertained the moſt diſtant idea of demanding from the parent ſtate any thing more than a redreſs of grievances. But the heat of political diſcuſſion had ſpeedily produced in the minds of thoſe who were endued with a more than ordinary degree of enthuſiaſm, a wiſh to liberate themſelves and their country from dependence upon a power, which, in the exaſperation of their feelings, they regarded not as their ſhield of protection, but as the inſtrument of tyranny. The events which had lately taken place in the province of Maſſachuſetts had at once emboldened theſe ardent ſpirits induſtriouſly to diſſeminate their opinions, and prepared the public mind to receive their doctrines with approbation. They who exulted in the triumph of victory, and they who mourned the loſs of relatives and friends who had periſhed in the commencement of the conteſt, united in reprobating the continuance of any political connection with Great Britain. If the members of Congreſs did not in this inſtance anticipate the public ſentiment, certain it is that they kept pace with it. On the 6th of May 1776, that aſſembly, after ſtating in a ſolemn reſolution that it was neceſſary that the exerciſe of every kind of authority under the crown of Great Britain ſhould be totally ſuppreſſed, recommended to the reſpective legiſlative aſſemblies of the united colonies the adop-

tion of ſuch government as ſhould in the opinion of the repreſentatives of the people beſt conduce to the happineſs and ſafety of their conſtituents in particular, and America in general. This reſolution was, as might have been expected, ſoon followed up by a ſtill more deciſive meaſure. On the 2d of July 1776, the Congreſs declared the united colonies to be free and independent ſtates, abſolved from all allegiance to the Britiſh crown.

The circumſtances in which the independence of the United States was proclaimed were ſuch as might have appalled hearts which were not prepared to encounter the moſt imminent danger. In the latter end of June 1776, General Howe had arrived at Sandy Hook, and was ſoon followed by the whole of his army, which he diſembarked on Staten Iſland. The Britiſh miniſtry had equipped a formidable fleet to ſecond his operations, the command of which was conferred upon Lord Howe, who joined his brother on the 12th of July. Whilſt the Britiſh commanders were waiting for large reinforcements which were daily expected, they reſolved to try the effect of conciliatory meaſures. With this view, they attempted to circulate a proclamation, whereby they promiſed pardon and an alleviation of commercial reſtrictions to ſuch of his Majeſty's ſubjects as were willing to return to their allegiance. About the ſame time that this proclamation was iſſued, they tranſmitted conciliatory propoſitions to General Waſhington. But as the addreſs of the letter in which theſe propoſitions were contained did not recognize the public character with which he was inveſted by Congreſs, he refuſed to receive it. The hopes which might have been entertained of pacific negociation being thus fruſtrated, both ſides prepared to decide the diſpute by arms.

In this ſtage of the conteſt, the reſources of the reſpective parties appear to have been by no means equal. The Britiſh army amounted to twenty-four thouſand men, well armed and well appointed, and, above all, enjoying the advantage of excellent diſcipline. No adequate preparation had been made by Congreſs at a ſufficiently early period to oppoſe this formidable force. When General Howe landed on Staten Iſland, the American army did not conſiſt of more than ten thouſand men; and it was not till after the moſt ſerious remonſtrances on the part of General Waſhington that reinforcements were gradually ſent, by which in the beginning of Auguſt its numbers were augmented to twenty-ſeven thouſand. It will eaſily be conceived that the ſtrength of this army was much impaired by the diſeaſes incident to raw

troops,

troops, by the want of ſubordination, and of experience in military affairs.

As Long Iſland was conſidered by the American General as an out-poſt eſſentially connected with the defence of New York, he had early ſtationed in it a body of troops who had entrenched themſelves in a ſtrong camp, within the works of which was encloſed the village of Brooklyn. In front of this encampment a range of well wooded hills extended nearly the whole length of the iſland. No ſooner had the Britiſh indicated an intention of making an attack on this poſition, than General Waſhington tranſported thither the principal part of his forces, ſtrong detachments of which he poſted on the hills, which, as it has been before obſerved, formed a barrier in front of his lines. There were three defiles by which an attacking army might penetrate theſe hills, one on the eaſtern, another on the weſtern extremity, and the third near the centre. On the morning of the 22d of Auguſt the firſt diviſion of Britiſh landed on the ſouth of the iſland. On the 26th their preparations having been completed, their right wing took a circuitous route, and gained the eaſtern defile before they were perceived by the enemy, who had advanced to oppoſe the left and the centre of Gen. Howe's army which menaced the other two approaches. By this manœuvre the Britiſh fell unexpectedly upon the rear of the American army, who were compelled to fight their way back to their encampment. In this deſperate movement they ſuffered ſuch conſiderable loſs that it is imagined that if General Howe had taken advantage of their panic, he might have taken their works by a *coup de main*. But with an exceſs of caution for which he has been ſeverely cenſured, he contented himſelf with breaking ground within ſix hundred yards of the American lines.

General Waſhington, who had croſſed over from New York ſoon after the commencement of the engagement, beheld "with inexpreſſible anguiſh the deſtruction in which his beſt troops were involved, and from which it was impoſſible to extricate them." Deſpairing of being able to maintain his poſition, he determined to evacuate the iſland; and with ſuch ſilence and order was his retreat conducted, that the laſt diviſion of the American army had nearly croſſed the ferry to New York before the Britiſh, whoſe advanced poſts in a manner overlooked their works, were apprized that they were in motion.

General Waſhington was highly blamed for this diſaſtrous attempt to defend Long Iſland. Mr. M. endeavours to vindicate his military fame againſt this impeachment, but we

think with little effect. When a commander encounters disciplined soldiers with raw troops, his only chance of ultimate success is to maintain a war of posts, and to avoid a decisive engagement. We cannot, therefore, but think it a great error in General Washington to place the flower of his troops in a situation, a retreat from which, in case of a disaster, was attended with the utmost peril. Such was the situation of the Americans, cooped up in a corner of Long Island, with a victorious enemy in front and the east river in their rear. Their escape from this hazardous position is wonderful in the eyes of military men, and can only be attributed to a supineness on the part of the enemy, on which General Washington had no right to reckon, and on the intervention of a fog which he could not foresee. What would have become of his forces had the wind continued unfavourable, as was the case when they first attempted to retreat? In suppressing the remarkable circumstances of the fog, and the fortunate change of the wind, and in slightly passing this astonishing retreat as a movement of little difficulty or note, Mr. M. evinces the address of an advocate rather than the fidelity of an historian.

General Howe, having in the action of the 27th of August feelingly convinced the Americans of the power of the British arms, was induced to believe that in the season of humiliation the Congress would listen to proposals of peace. He accordingly sent one of the principal of his prisoners to invite that assembly to send some of their members to confer with him upon this important subject. In compliance with his request, the Congress authorised a committee of their body to repair to Staten Island, and receive his proposals. But as neither party was yet prepared to make the necessary concessions, this negociation, which was conducted on both sides with the utmost civility, terminated without the desired success.

In thus adhering to the assertion of American independence, the Congress evinced an uncommon degree of firmness. The military pride with which their countrymen had been inspired in consequence of their successes at Lexington and Boston, had been severely humbled by the disastrous battle of Brooklyn. Their best troops had fled before the enemy, and the ranks of their army were daily thinned by desertion. At the period when they thus obstinately refused to listen to terms of conciliation, the inauspicious state of their military establishment was thus feelingly described by a letter from the commander-in-chief:

"Our situation is truly distressing. The check our detachment sustained on the 27th ult. has dispirited too great a proportion of our troops,

troops, and filled their minds with apprehenſions and deſpair. The militia, inſtead of calling forth their utmoſt efforts to a brave and manly oppoſition, in order to repair our loſſes, are diſmayed, intractable, and impatient to return. Great numbers of them have gone off; in ſome inſtances, almoſt by whole regiments; in many, by half ones, and by companies, at a time. This circumſtance, of itſelf, independent of others, when fronted by a well appointed enemy, ſuperior in number to our whole collected force, would be ſufficiently diſagreeable; but, when it is added, that their example has infected another part of the army, that their want of diſcipline, and refuſal of almoſt every kind of reſtraint and government, have rendered a like conduct but too common in the whole, and have produced an intire diſregard of that order and ſubordination neceſſary for the well doing of an army, and which had been before inculcated as well as the nature of our military eſtabliſhment would admit, our condition is ſtill more alarming, and, with the deepeſt concern, I am obliged to confeſs my want of confidence in the generality of the troops."

At the head of this deſponding band General Waſhington occupied New York. The ſituation of this town which is built upon an iſland waſhed on the weſt, ſouth, and eaſt by Hudſon's, Eaſt, and Haarlem rivers, rendered it conſtantly liable to be advantageouſly attacked by an enemy whoſe naval force was irreſiſtible. In this extremity General Waſhington thought it abſolutely neceſſary to remove from the iſland ſuch ſtores as could poſſibly be ſpared. He accordingly conveyed his heavy baggage and ammunition over Kingſbridge, which being thrown over a narrow channel on the north of York Iſland opens a communication with the main land. This precautionary ſtep was ſoon followed by the evacuation of New York, a meaſure which was precipitated by the cowardly behaviour of a detachment of the American army who had been ſtationed to defend a landing-place about three miles above the town, but who on the approach of the ſquadron which had been appointed to cover the diſembarkation of a body of Britiſh troops, fled without ſtriking a blow. "The retreat from New York was effected with a very inconſiderable loſs of men: but all the heavy artillery and a large portion of the baggage, proviſions, and military ſtores, much of which might have been ſaved, had the poſt where the Britiſh landed been properly defended, were unavoidably abandoned."

Being thus compelled to evacuate New York, General Waſhington thinking it expedient to make a ſtand againſt the Britiſh in York Iſland, withdrew to the heights of Haarlem, a ſtrong poſition, in which he entrenched his troops in a fortified camp. The main body of the enemy ſoon took

poſt near his lines, and ſeveral ſkirmiſhes enſued, in which the Americans behaved with conſiderable gallantry, and began to retrieve the reputation which they had loſt on Long Iſland. General Howe at length, deſpairing of being able to force the American entrenchments, determined to diſlodge Waſhington from his ſtrong hold, by a movement which indicated an intention of turning his rear and cutting off his communication with the main land. For this purpoſe he detached a conſiderable diviſion of his army from York Iſland, which landing in Weſt Cheſter county, about nine miles to the eaſtward of Haarlem, advanced to New Rochelle. This manœuvre had the deſired effect. The American Commander being apprehenſive of being blocked up in York Iſland and compelled to fight on diſadvantageous terms, broke up his camp, and leaving a ſtrong garriſon in a fort built nearly in the centre of the iſland, which, in honour of him, was called Fort Waſhington, he marched over King's Bridge towards the White Plains. Hither he was ſpeedily followed by General Howe, who having made the requiſite preparations to attack him in his camp, drove in his outpoſts and attacked his advanced corps with ſuch decided ſucceſs that Waſhington was reduced to the neceſſity of withdrawing to the heights of North Caſtle, a poſition ſtill ſtronger than any which he had hitherto held on the main land. Having effected his retreat thither without loſs, he fortified himſelf ſo completely that General Howe, not thinking himſelf juſtified in attempting to attack him, was obliged to give a new direction to his efforts.

It has been already ſtated, that when the Americans retreated from York Iſland they left in Fort Waſhington a garriſon of conſiderable ſtrength. Oppoſite to this fortreſs, on the Jerſey ſhore of the Hudſon river, they alſo occupied a ſtrong poſition, to which they had given the name of Fort Lee. As the ſubſiſtence of theſe poſts in his rear greatly impeded his operations, General Howe was well aware of the expediency of reducing them. He accordingly detached on this ſervice a diviſion of his army, under the command of General Knyphauſen, who in obedience to his orders advanced from New Rochelle, and encamped before Fort Waſhington. In the mean time General Howe marched with the main body from the White Plains to King's Bridge. Waſhington, being aware that this retrograde movement indicated a deſign of invading the Jerſeys, croſſed Hudſon's River with a part of his forces, leaving the remainder under the command of General Lee, to defend the province of New York. The American army being thus divided, General Howe gave orders for the immediate

diate attack of Fort Waſhington, which was taken after a ſevere conteſt; and the ſurviving garriſon were made priſoners of war. This diſaſtrous event induced the neceſſity of evacuating Fort Lee.

"General Waſhington now took poſt along the Hackenſac, but it was impoſſible to diſpute its paſſage. He was now in a level country, without a ſingle intrenching tool; at the head of an army, conſiſting of about three thouſand effectives; expoſed, without tents, to the inclement ſeaſon which already prevailed; among people by no means zealous in the American cauſe; and, in other reſpects, his preſent ſituation was a dangerous one.

"This gloomy ſtate of things was not brightened by the proſpect before him. In caſting his eyes around, no cheering object preſented itſelf. No ſafe reliance could be placed on reinforcements to be drawn from any quarter. He, however, made every poſſible exertion to collect an army; and, in the mean time, to impede, as much as poſſible, the progreſs of the enemy. General Carleton having retired from before Ticonderoga, he directed General Schuyler to ſend to his aid, with the utmoſt poſſible diſpatch, the troops of Pennſylvania and Jerſey, who had been attached to the northern army. But the march was long, their terms of ſervice had nearly expired, and they had refuſed to re-enliſt. General Lee was directed to croſs the North River, and to hold himſelf in readineſs, if the enemy ſhould continue the campaign, to join the commander in chief; but his army, too, was melting away, under the influence of the ſame fatal cauſe which had acted ſo univerſally and ſo banefully, and would ſoon be almoſt totally diſſolved. General Mercer, who commanded a part of the flying camp ſtationed about Bergen, was alſo called in; but theſe troops had only engaged to ſerve till the firſt day of December; and, like the other ſix months men, had already abandoned the army in great numbers. No hope exiſted of retaining the remnant of them, after they ſhould poſſeſs a legal right to be diſcharged, and very little of ſupplying their places with other militia.

"The preſent ſituation of the American army was preciſely ſimilar to that it had abandoned, and, of conſequence, no ſerious deſign of attempting to maintain it was formed. The Hackenſac lay between them and the enemy, and the Paſſaic was immediately in their rear; ſo that the danger of being encloſed between two rivers ſtill exiſted. While, therefore, ſome regiments were diſpoſed along the Hackenſac, ſo as to afford the ſemblance of intending to defend it, and thus, for a time, to cover the few ſtores which could not immediately be removed, General Waſhington, with Beal's, Heard's, and part of Irvine's, brigades, croſſed over at Acquackanunc Bridge, and took poſt at Newark, on the ſouth ſide of the Paſſaic. Soon after he had marched, Major-General Vaughan appeared at the head of the dragoons, grenadiers, and light infantry, before the new bridge over the Hackenſac; and the American detach-

ment, left as a rear-guard, being totally unable to defend it, could only break up the bridge, and retire, before him, over the Paſſaic.

"On the ſouth ſide of this river, the country being open behind them, it was determined to halt a few days, to make ſome ſhow of reſiſtance, and to endeavour to collect ſuch a force as would keep up, at leaſt, the ſemblance of an army."

In theſe forlorn circumſtances General Waſhington vigorouſly exerted himſelf to raiſe the militia of New Jerſey, and the adjoining ſtates. But his endeavours were fruitleſs. Diſmay began to take poſſeſſion of the advocates for independence, and multitudes were haſtening to make their peace with the royal commiſſioners. He alſo ſent preſſing diſpatches, urging General Lee to haſten to join him with the forces under his command. But that officer too plainly teſtified an extreme reluctance to comply with his requiſitions. To add to his mortifications, the term of the enliſtment of a large proportion of his remaining forces having expired, when the enemy was almoſt in ſight of his rear diviſion, theſe daſtards abandoned their general in the time of his utmoſt need. Thus embarraſſed and forſaken, nothing remained for him but to haſten to croſs the Delaware, the deep and rapid current of which might ſtop the purſuit of the enemy.

Had the Britiſh been enabled to follow him in his flight, the city of Philadephia muſt ſoon have been compelled to ſurrender. But, the Americans having ſecured all the boats on the Pennſylvania ſide of the river, General Howe cantoned his victorious troops at Burlington, Bordenton, and Trenton. Here the Britiſh commander patiently waited for the ſetting in of the froſt, which was daily expected, to open to him a free acceſs to the enemy's army, the defeat and deſtruction of which was conſidered as a matter of courſe, in the event of its being overtaken. At this awful criſis the genius of Waſhington diſplayed itſelf in an enterpriſe, the conception of which evinced a boldneſs of ſpirit, while its execution manifeſted a promptitude and ſkill which have ſecured to him an immortal reputation. Though his forces at this time amounted to no more than three thouſand men, he formed the daring project of recroſſing the river, and falling upon the advanced poſts of the enemy. With this intention, on the evening of Chriſtmas day 1776, he embarked at a place called Mc Konchy's ferry, and after having landed his artillery, he formed his troops into two diviſions, which he ordered to proceed by two different roads to Trenton. Theſe diviſions having arrived at the place of their deſtination almoſt preciſely at the ſame time, made a vigorous attack upon the Heſſian troops who were quartered

quartered in the town. Colonel Rahl, who commanded the latter, having fallen at the firſt onſet, the greater part of his men, to the number of one thouſand, laid down their arms. A body of ſix hundred made their eſcape to Bordenton. Their flight would, however, have been intercepted, and the ſucceſs of the Americans would have been in other reſpects more brilliant, had it not unfortunately happened that two detachments which General Waſhington had ordered to croſs into Jerſey, for the purpoſe of co-operating with him, were prevented from paſſing the Delaware by the accumulation of the ice. On the evening of the 26th of December, therefore, the American commander not deeming it prudent to await the attack of the main body of the Britiſh, recroſſed into Pennſylvania, carrying with him, as the evidences of his glorious victory, his priſoners and a quantity of military ſtores.

Emboldened by this ſucceſs, General Waſhington, on the 28th of December, recroſſed the Delaware, and again took poſſeſſion of Trenton. The Britiſh who were aſſembled at the neighbouring town of Princeton, were no ſooner apprized of this movement, than they advanced in great force, and preſſed ſo cloſely upon the Americans, that both armies, on the evening of January 2, 1777, were crowded into the ſmall town of Trenton, and were ſeparated only by a narrow and fordable creek. The ſituation of the continental forces was now extremely critical. A retreat was impracticable, and a conteſt with an army in every reſpect ſuperior was not to be juſtified by the rules of war. In this exigency General Waſhington reſolved once more to try a deſperate hazard, and to endeavour to turn the rear of the Britiſh at Princeton. He made his arrangements accordingly, and notwithſtanding the vicinity of his enemy, he broke up his camp at dead of night without the Britiſh being aware of any extraordinary movement; and early in the morning, at the time when the enemy were preparing to attack his vacant camp, he fell upon their rear guard at Princeton, which he defeated, with the loſs of ſixty killed and three hundred priſoners.

General Howe was ſo much alarmed by theſe ſpirited enterpriſes on the part of an adverſary whom he had lately conſidered as reduced to the utmoſt extremity, that he retired from the neighbourhood of the Delaware, and concentrated his forces at Amboy and Brunſwick. In the mean time General Waſhington took up his winter quarters at Marriſtoun.

Mr. M. juſtly obſerves, that

"The bold, judicious, and unexpected attacks made at Trenton and Princeton, by an enemy believed to be vanquiſhed, had an influence on the fate of the war much more extenſive in its conſequences

quences than, from a mere eſtimate of the killed and taken, would be ſuppoſed. They ſaved Philadelphia for the preſent winter; they recovered the ſtate of Jerſey; and, which was of ſtill more importance, they revived the drooping ſpirits of America, and gave a ſenſible impulſe to the recruiting ſervice throughout the United States."

With the cloſe of the eventful campaign of 1776, the ſecond volume of the Life of General Waſhington terminates. As the ſpeedy publication of the third volume is announced, we hope ſoon to reſume the thread of this intereſting biographical narration. But before we lay down the pen, we would wiſh to apprize Mr. Chief Juſtice Marſhall, if haply theſe pages ſhould be honoured with his inſpection, that on this ſide the Atlantic it is not reckoned conſiſtent with the laws of literary integrity to borrow whole pages from contemporary authors without making due acknowledgment of the obligation. We particularly allude to the tranſcripts which he has made from Ramſay's elegant hiſtory of the American revolution. Such of our readers as will take the trouble of comparing pp. 317 and 318 of the firſt volume of that work with pp. 539 and 540 of Mr. Marſhall's ſecond volume, will be convinced, by a flagrant inſtance of an * irregular transfer of literary property, that our hint is by no means miſapplied.

Marſhall, Vol. II. p. 539.

"When reduced to their loweſt ebb, towards the cloſe of 1776, while the tide of fortune was running ſtrongeſt againſt them, ſome few members, diſtruſting their ability to make a ſucceſsful reſiſtance, propoſed to authoriſe commiſſioners, deputed to the court of Verſailles, to transfer to that country the ſame monopoly of their trade which Great-Britain had hitherto enjoyed. This propoſition is ſtated to have been relinquiſhed, becauſe it was believed that conceſſions of this kind would deſtroy the force of many arguments which had been uſed in favour of independence, and

Ramſay, Vol. I. p. 317.

"So low were they reduced in the latter end of 1776, that ſome members, diſtruſtful of their ability to reſiſt the power of Great-Britain, propoſed to authoriſe their commiſſioners at the court of France (whoſe appointment ſhall be hereafter explained) to transfer to that country the ſame monopoly of their trade which Great-Britain had hitherto enjoyed. On examination it was found, that conceſſions of this kind would deſtroy the force of many arguments heretofore uſed in favour of independence, and probably diſunite their citizens. It was next propoſed

* It may perhaps be neceſſary to apprize ſome of our readers, that "*an irregular transfer of property*" is a term happily deviſed by the authors of the modern philoſophy, to ſoften down the idea of peculation or theft.

and probably diſunite the people. It was next propoſed to offer a monopoly of certain enumerated articles of produce: to this, the claſhing intereſts of the different ſtates were ſo directly oppoſed, that it received a ſpeedy and decided negative. Some propoſed offering to France a league offenſive and defenſive; but this was alſo rejected. The more enlightened members of Congreſs argued, that, though the friendſhip of ſmall ſtates might be purchaſed, that of France could not. They alleged, that, if ſhe would riſk a war with Great-Britain, by openly eſpouſing their cauſe, it would not be ſo much from the proſpect of direct advantages, as from a natural deſire to leſſen the overgrown power of a dangerous rival. It was therefore ſuppoſed that the only inducement likely to influence France to an interference, was an aſſurance that the United States were determined to perſevere in refuſing to return to their former allegiance. Under the influence of this better opinion, reſolutions were again entered into, declaratory of their determination to liſten to no terms founded on the idea of their reſuming the character of Britiſh ſubjects, but truſting the event to Providence, and riſking all conſequences; to adhere to the independence they had declared, and the freedom of trade they had proffered to all nations. Copies of theſe reſolutions were ſent to the principal courts of Europe, and proper perſons were appointed to ſolicit their friendſhip to the new-formed ſtates. Theſe diſpatches fell into the hands of the Britiſh, and by them were publiſhed; a circumſtance which, as it was not propoſed to offer a monopoly of certain enumerated articles of produce. To this the variant intereſts of the different ſtates were ſo directly oppoſed, as to occaſion a ſpeedy and decided negative. Some propoſed offering to France a league offenſive and defenſive, in caſe ſhe would heartily ſupport American independence; but this was alſo rejected. The more enlightened members of Congreſs argued, though the friendſhip of ſmall ſtates might be purchaſed, that of France could not. They alleged, that if ſhe would riſk a war with Great-Britain, by openly eſpouſing their cauſe, it would not be ſo much from the proſpect of direct advantages, as from a natural deſire to leſſen the overgrown power of a dangerous rival. It was therefore ſuppoſed, that the only inducement likely to influence France to an interference, was an aſſurance that the United States were determined to perſevere in refuſing a return to their former allegiance. Inſtead of liſtening to the terms of the royal commiſſioners, or to any founded on the idea of their reſuming the character of Britiſh ſubjects, it was therefore again reſolved, to abide by their declared independence, and proffered freedom of trade to every foreign nation, truſting the event to Providence, and riſking all conſequences. Copies of theſe reſolutions were ſent to the principal courts of Europe, and proper perſons were appointed to ſolicit their friendſhip to the new-formed ſtates. Theſe copies fell into the hands of the Britiſh, and were by them publiſhed. This was the very thing wiſhed for by Congreſs: they well knew that an

circumſtance by no means unwiſhed for by Congreſs, who were perſuaded that an apprehenſion of their making up all differences with Great-Britain was a principal objection to the interference of foreign courts in what was repreſented to be no more than a domeſtic quarrel. A reſolution, adopted in the deepeſt diſtreſs, and in the worſt of times, that Congreſs would liſten to no terms of re-union with the parent ſtate, would, it was believed, convince thoſe who wiſhed for the diſmemberment of the Britiſh empire, that it was found policy to interfere, ſo far as would prevent the conqueſt of the United States."

an apprehenſion of their making up all differences with Great-Britain was the principal objection to the interference of foreign courts, in what was repreſented to be no more than a domeſtic quarrel. A reſolution, adopted in the deepeſt diſtreſs and the worſt of times, that Congreſs would liſten to no terms of re-union with their parent ſtate, convinced thoſe who wiſhed for the diſmemberment of the Britiſh empire, that it was found policy to interfere, ſo far as would prevent the conqueſt of the United States."

ART. CC. *Tranſlations from the German, Daniſh, &c.: to which is added, Miſcellaneous Poetry. By W. Herbert.* 8vo. pp. 160. price 6s. Reynolds, London. 1804.

WE preſume this Mr. Herbert to be the ſame gentleman whoſe tranſlations from the Icelandic we have noticed in a former article, but there ſeems to be ſome confuſion ariſing from ſimilarity of names; for, the preſent Mr. Herbert obſerves in his preliminary diſcourſe as follows: "A volume intitled Sir Launcelot, &c. (which I underſtand has been publiſhed by a gentleman bearing the ſame name with myſelf) having been attributed to me by *ſeveral* perſons, I beg leave to diſclaim all knowledge of that work, which I have not even ſeen."

The preſent volume commences with a tranſlation of Lenardo and Blandina, from the German of Bürger, the well-known author of Lenora. This tale is ſimilar to that of Guiſcard and Sigiſmunda, altered by Dryden from Boccacio's Decamerone. Mr. Herbert has purpoſely omitted one third part of the tale, and begins abruptly, where the king, the father of Blandina, liſtens at the cave to the amorous parley of the lovers. We think, upon the whole, that the tranſlation is executed with ſpirit and fidelity; though we meet occaſionally with paſſages which do not fully convey the meaning of the author;—for inſtance,

Line

Line 83. " While the heart of the youth, which no pleaſure can [warm,
Grows colder and ſadder with fearful alarm,"—

is not a tranſlation of

" Den Liebenden d'rin, nach gepflogener luſt
Ward enger und bänger von Ahndung die Bruſt:"

which does not imply that the pleaſure did not warm the youth, but that *after* its completion his ſadneſs returned.

In line 282, *ſtirn* is needleſsly miſtranſlated *boſom*.

" Then ſunk the heart broken with *ſad hollow* eye,"

is a miſerable line. Mr. Herbert is again unfortunate in the uſe of the word *ſad:*

" My child, if my ſad crimes may yet be forgiven."

In the ſtanza,—

" Schau auf Prinzeſſin! Der Morgen ſchon graut
Nun laſs mich, bevor uns der Morgen erſchaut!
Ach, Trauter, ach bleib noch! der Sternlein licht
Verräth ja die Gänge der Liebenden nicht;"

the author meant to expreſs the ſame kind of contraſt, between the dawn of morning and ſtar-light, as Shakeſpeare introduces in the ſcene between Romeo and Juliet, when the ſatisfied lover wiſhes to leave his unwilling miſtreſs. This contraſt is entirely omitted in Mr. Herbert's tranſlation, in which the ſame kind of light is mentioned, both by the princeſs and her lover.

After this follow imitations of four odes of Geſner, and at the end there is a Greek verſion of another of Geſner's odes, by Mr. W. Frere. The ſong of a Swiſs, to his maid in armour, is beautiful in the German, but we do not think Mr. Herbert has been remarkably ſucceſsful in his tranſlation of it.

We ſhall extract, for the entertainment of our readers, the Morning Song:

" Hail, orient Sun, auſpicious light!
Hail, new-born orb of day!
Lo, from behind the wood-crown'd height,
Breaks forth thy glittering ray.

Behold it ſparkle in the ſtream,
And on the dew-drop ſhine!
O, may ſweet Joy's enlivening beam
Mix his pure rays with thine!

The Zephyrs now, with frolic wing,
Their roſy beds forſake;
And, ſhedding round the ſweets of ſpring,
Their drowſy comrades wake.

Soft

Soft Sleep and all his airy forms
Fly from the dawning day:
Like little loves, O may their ſwarms
On Chloe's boſom play!

Ye Zephyrs, haſte; from every flower
The ſweeteſt perfumes take;
And bear them hence to Chloe's bower;
For ſoon the maid muſt wake!

And, hovering round her fragrant bed,
In breezes call my fair;
Go, frolic round her graceful head,
And ſcent her golden hair!

Then gently whiſper in her ear,
That ere the Sun gan riſe,
By the ſoft murmuring fountain here
I breath'd her name in ſighs."

Line 10. "roſy beds," why not, 'beds of flowers?' in the original, it is "Der zephir der in blumin ſchlief."—Line 21. "fragrant bed;" in the original, "weiches bett," 'ſoft, or downy, bed': 'fragrant' is not a happy epithet applied to a bed that has been ſlept in, even by Chloe.

In the tranſlation from Beza, Mr. Herbert begins, "Zephyr, who feel'ſt;" and immediately after ſays, "*your* wings," inſtead of "*thy* wings." A ſimilar fault occurs in page 60:

"And thou, romantic ſpot, &c.
Upon *your* ſides, &c."

In page 65, we admire Mr. Herbert's ſcrupulous adherence to truth:

"Some ſacred charm of melancholy ſtrains
Steals ſoft *(or ſeems to ſteal)* upon the breeze."

Line 130 of the poem written in Somerſetſhire,

"Warble the ſorrowfulleſt ditties ſweet,"

is a miſerable line; the laſt word is, evidently, dragged in merely to complete the verſe.

Mr. Herbert diſcovers his politics in the lines on the Peace of Amiens, which begin;

"Our arms have thunder'd,
And Europe has wonder'd
At trophies of valour by Britain diſplay'd;
But April expiring
Has heard the guns firing,
To ſound the ſad fall of her glory and trade."

Glory and trade are awkwardly aſſociated; and however our glory may have ſuffered by that experiment of peace, our trade certainly did not.

We

We have obſerved occaſionally ſome very defective rhimes, as, for example, "ſtill" and "ſmile;" "not ſo fair" and "regular;" "form" and "charm;" "roſe" and "loſe;" &c.

It will be but juſtice to Mr. Herbert's poetical talents to enable the reader to judge of his own productions; for which purpoſe we ſelect the Ode to Deſpair:

I.

" O thou, the fiend to Death allied,
Who ſitt'ſt by weeping Sorrow's ſide,
And bidd'ſt unreal ſhapes ariſe
Of monſtrous port and giant ſize,—
Deſpair! thy gorgon eye
Can numb the heart with ſtern controul,
And bind in ice the palſied ſoul.
Where'er beneath ſome whiſtling ſhed
Thy ſullen form is laid,
Scaring from orphan breaſts the balm of ſleep;
Or liſtening to the hollow ſigh
Of her, whoſe infants watch and weep,
While round her ſide, with ſlow conſuming pang,
The barking dogs of famine hang.

II.

Or, caſt upon ſome trackleſs ſhore,
'Gainſt which the barren billows roar,
Thou turn'ſt thy leaden eyes in vain
Acroſs the immeaſurable main;
And, thro' the hoarſely murmuring ſpray,
Hear'ſt the ſad ſea-ſhriek die away:
While through the howling ſtorm in awful pride
The baleful ſpirits of the thunder ride.

III.

Oft by the taper's mournful ray,
In arched vaults but dimly ſeen,
Where cloiſter'd virgins vainly pray,
Thou lov'ſt to mark the ſolemn ſcene;
And haunt the gloomy cell,
Where pale Regret and hopeleſs Memory dwell,
And weeping Love; and by his ſide
Unfated Luſt and ling'ring Pride,
Who left the world they lov'd ſo well;
And Shame, that ſhuns the day.

IV.

But fierceſt on the blood-ſtain'd ground,
Where cruſh'd Ambition ſtares around,
And kindred Vice of coward ſoul,
That hugs the knife with downcaſt eye,
And dreads the blow, ſhe dares not fly;
There ſits thy dark terrific form,
With ſwollen balls, that wildly roll,

And,

And points the ſlowly gathering ſtorm
Big with the threats of fate.
Around thy hideous phantoms wait;
And chiefly he, the giant power,
Whom luſtful Sin to Murder bore,
Fell Suicide, that ſtalks behind
With ghaſtly ſmile and baneful breath,
When hope has left the guilty mind,
Sounding the dirge of death.

The ſecond part of this volume contains a Greek verſion of Oſſian's Darthula, and ſeveral other Greek and Latin productions. Mr. Herbert appears to be ſingularly well verſed both in ancient and modern languages.

ART. CCI. *An Inquiry into the Neceſſity, Nature, and Evidences of Revealed Religion. By Thomas Robinſon, M. A. Rector of Ruan-Minor, Cornwall.* 8vo. pp. 303. Price 6*s*. Baldwin, London. 1803.

IN his preface to this work, the author intimates, that though various treatiſes in defence of Revelation (to which no objection can be offered) have been lately publiſhed; yet he is acquainted with no book, where the *neceſſity, nature*, and *evidences* of Chriſtianity, are preſented in one view to the reader. Without contradicting this aſſertion of the writer, we ſhall only obſerve, that Porteus and Paley have told us, with elegance and perſpicuity, every truth which it is neceſſary to know in thoſe three diviſions of the ſubject. At the concluſion of his preface Mr. Robinſon inſinuates, that, "ſhould he have brought forward the matter of which his work is compoſed in a way adapted to anſwer his purpoſe, he may be inſtrumental in inſtructing thoſe who would have *turned with diſguſt* from more elaborate though *abler diſcuſſions*. The perſons who "turn with *diſguſt*" from abler diſcuſſions, we ſhould not, we confeſs, be very ambitious of inſtructing.

But, with the impreſſion which the peruſal of this volume has left on our minds, it would ill become us to animadvert on trifling errors or inaccuracies.

That Mr. Robinſon's intentions were good, his manner of writing, we think, ſufficiently argues: and that he has executed his plan with a conſiderable degree of ſucceſs, our report of the contents of the book, and the ſpecimen which we mean to ſubjoin, will abundantly prove. In the firſt chapter, where it is ſtated, "that the will of God is neceſſary to be known by his creatures, and that there are two different methods of aſcertaining his will; one, by the uſe of reaſon only; the other, by revelation

revelation from God himſelf:" the former is ſhown to be an inadequate guide to religious knowledge or moral conduct, from a view of the ſtate of thoſe ancient nations which had no other inſtructor than reaſon to direct them. In this chapter the author's learning is advantageouſly diſplayed. The ſecond chapter, on the neceſſity of a divine Revelation, is at once argumentative and entertaining. The divine Revelation contained in the Old and New Teſtaments;—the law of Moſes, divided into three ſeparate branches;—the genuineneſs and authenticity of the books of Moſes;—their divine authority;—the hiſtorical and prophetic writings;—the Hagiographia, or books written by holy men;—the canon of the Old Teſtament;—the New Teſtament; are the chief topics of the 3d, 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, 8th, 9th, and 10th chapters. From the 11th to the 23d, we are preſented with diſtinct views of the Goſpels and Epiſtles, and the Revelation of St. John. Examining the canon of the New Teſtament (chapter 23d);—the credibility of the Goſpel hiſtory (c. 24);—its truth, as confirmed by the converſion of St. Paul (c. 25);—the divine inſpiration of the ſacred writers, as aſſerted by themſelves (c. 26);—the divine origin of the Chriſtian religion, as apparent in the intrinſic excellence of its matter (c. 27);—the ſupernatural character and powers of its Founder (c. 28);—his reſurrection (c. 29);—the beneficial conſequences of Chriſtianity to ſociety (c. 30);—the proofs that Jeſus of Nazareth was the Meſſiah (c. 31);—the Scriptures, as tranſmitted to the preſent times, without any material corruption or alteration (c. 32); we are led, in concluſion, to "rules for reading the Scriptures to advantage" (c. 33); and to the "Recapitulation" (c. 34). From this analyſis, Mr. Robinſon's judgment and learning are apparent. Our promiſed extract will facilitate the reader's deciſion on the merits of the work:

"The original MSS. (ſays Mr. Robinſon) of the Law and the Prophets, were preſerved by the Jews for a long period. By the command of Moſes, the former was carefully depoſited in the Tabernacle, a ſhort time before his death; as were the other books, as ſoon as they were produced. They were afterwards removed by Solomon into the Temple, which was allotted for the reception of the future compoſitions of the inſpired writers. If the originals periſhed in the flames of the Temple (a fact not aſcertained), there can be no doubt *but* that numerous copies were faithfully preſerved during the Babyloniſh captivity, from which Ezra, in conjunction with the great Synagogue, was enabled to make an authentic ſelection, and to depoſit it, increaſed by the additional works of the later prophets, in the ſecond Temple. Whether the copy which remained in that ſacred repoſitory, at the time of the deſtruction of Jeruſalem by Titus, was the ſame as that made by Ezra, or not, we have no

reaſon to ſuppoſe it to have been ſpurious or incorrect; as we do not find that the later Jews were more negligent in preſerving this valuable treaſure, than thoſe who preceded them. They frequently tranſcribed, and minutely compared the copies with the originals, and were ſo exact as to number the very words and letters. After the diſperſion of the Jews into different nations, ſuch was the vaſt multiplication of copies, that intentional corruption was no longer in their power. Beſides, from that time, the Chriſtian converts were equally intereſted with the Jews themſelves in preſerving the ſource of their doctrines from pollution. The New Teſtament, being far leſs ancient, is more eaſily proved to be uncorrupted. It was received in the apoſtolical age, as written by the Apoſtles themſelves, or by thoſe who wrote under their direction. Some of the earlieſt Chriſtian writers, as Ignatius and Polycarp, lived long enough to ſee the canon ſettled."—"When we take into the account the diſperſion of the Chriſtians into ſo many diſtant countries, and the numerous copies that muſt have been in their poſſeſſion, we cannot but think the attempt almoſt impoſſible to ſubſtitute falſe books inſtead of true, or to vitiate the true ones to any conſiderable degree. The various readings of the New Teſtament affect none of its fundamental facts or doctrines; and chiefly relate to the orthography, idiom, and other matters of inconſiderable importance."

This treatiſe well deſerves a place in the library of every Chriſtian reader.

ART. CCII. *The Spirit of Anti-Jacobiniſm, for* 1802: *being a Collection of Eſſays, Diſſertations, and other Pieces, in Proſe and Verſe, on Subjects Religious, Moral, Political, and Literary; partly ſelected from the fugitive Publications of the Day, and partly Original.* 12mo. pp. 415; price 6s. Whittle.

THIS volume has not been ſo long before the public as its title-page would lead us to ſuppoſe: without waiting, therefore, for "the Spirit" of 1803, we ſhall addreſs ourſelves to the one immediately before us.

> "Thou com'ſt in ſuch a queſtionable ſhape,
> That we will ſpeak to thee!"

Whether it bring "airs from heaven or blaſts from hell," we may not be juſtified in aſking, on the due examination of its credentials. But, at firſt ſight, its appearance is ſtrangely equivocal. To uſe plain language,—we have rarely met with ſo odd a medley as the collection under review. In reſpect to the ſubjects, we cannot conceive the relation of many of the pieces to Anti-jacobiniſm: they might as well have been written by Jacobins as Anti-jacobins. And, in regard to literary merit, we are ſurpriſed at the admiſſion of ſome very paltry performances

performances by the ſide of others of high excellence. The ſix eſſays, originally publiſhed in the Public Advertiſer, are extremely well written. "As it was impoſſible (ſays the eſſayiſt) for men ever to have exiſted in a perfect ſtate of nature, ſo it is abſurd to derive any argument from the compact, which is ſuppoſed to have been made when they changed it for the ſtate of civil ſociety. Families may be ſuppoſed to have united for their common benefit, and population to have increaſed. Hunters became herdſmen, and herdſmen agriculturers. Wandering tribes may have grown ſtationary, and towns at laſt may have produced the firſt principles of manufacture and commerce. Laws and inſtitutions muſt have grown gradually out of the ſeveral ſituations in which men found themſelves, till the *conſtitution* they at firſt adopted bore no reſemblance to that in which their ſocieties were perfected. The Patriarchal government, of diſtinct families, was certainly not conferred by the people who formed it, and who had grown up under it from infancy, in habits of obedience and deference to their common parent: different families united, and ſubmitted themſelves, probably, to the authority of the moſt venerable of theſe little ſovereigns."—Theſe eſſays are diſtinguiſhed by good ſenſe and candour, as well as by a complete knowledge of the ſubject.

The next piece, "Life a Threefold Eſtimate," is a poor performance: it reminds us of "the Progreſs of Diſcontent," and one or two other juvenile poems, of Tom Warton; but much to its own diſadvantage. "The Diſbanded Subaltern" is far below mediocrity. Nor in the ſongs and other verſes, as far as the 64th page, is there any thing peculiarly attractive. The "Thoughts on the Will of the People" are, in our opinion, uniformly juſt; and they are expreſſed with energy. Again are we aſſailed by a poem, its title "Innovation:" the ſame ſentiments in proſe would, probably, have pleaſed us; but the author has no pretenſions to the name of a poet. The "Adventures of Crita" are the moſt "moderate" piece of proſe in the collection; we do not mean in a political ſenſe: "*mediocribus eſſe*," &c. &c. "The Anarchiſts," an ode, is a contemptible parody of "the Paſſions" of Collins. Next come "Three Eſſays on Literary Compoſition," which, though they afforded us pleaſure in the peruſal, have certainly no connection with politics.—"That the pedant ſhould diſreliſh the fine imagery of a Gray or an Akenſide; that he ſhould reject "the Bard," or "the Pleaſures of Imagination," as incongruous with claſſical prototypes, need not raiſe our wonder; though ſuch arrogance and ſpleen muſt excite our indignation. It is not every ſcholar, though his head be ſomething better than

a mere ſtorehouſe of words, who hath a poetical mind. We cannot admit the ſcholar, therefore, in right of his ſcholarſhip, among the judges of poetry. Early prejudices, ſcientific inveſtigation, logical reaſonings, excluding fancy and paſſion, preconceived hypotheſes in matters of taſte, and a propenſity to oppoſe the reigning opinions, concur, with various cauſes, to obliterate, even in men of underſtanding, the principles of philological criticiſm. It would otherwiſe be truly aſtoniſhing that Locke had no notion of poetry."

The only compoſition in this volume which is not anonymous, is "Sir Aaron; or, The Flights of Fanaticiſm:" by the Reverend R. Polwhele, author of the "Engliſh Orator," and of the "Influence of Local Attachment." This poem is written in the ſtanza of Spenſer, and has much originality; particularly the ſecond canto, or the Pilgrimage to Hell;—*e. g.*

"Strait where he ſtalk'd, aroſe the unceaſing cries
Of infants, who, by too ſevere a doom,
Ere yet they could enjoy theſe upper ſkies,
Were hurried, all untimely, to the tomb.
Lorn innocents! no ſooner from the womb
Ye ſtruggled into life, than, unappriz'd
Of ſin, ye ſunk into the oblivious gloom!
Ah! why, when ſinners grey are canoniz'd,
Why weep ſo ſore?—ye died, poor wretches!—unbaptiz'd!

There too, in numerous ſhapes, in ſable clad,
Curates and pariſh prieſts would flit along:
There ſilken deans would ruſtle thro' the ſhade,
And lawn-ſleeves gleam, the caſſock'd tribe among!
Ah! what avail'd the vicar's ſober tongue
That to a blameleſs life the meed aſſign'd?
What the pure precepts that o'er-aw'd the throng,
Where prelates, deſtin'd to adorn mankind,
To courtly ſplendour join'd an apoſtolic mind?"

We have not room to enter into the merits of the various eſſays that compoſe the remainder of the volume. It may be ſufficient to ſay, that the proſe is infinitely ſuperior to the poetry—(if ſuch verſes as we meet with, towards the end of the book, deſerve the name); and that the "Eſſay on the Britiſh Conſtitution" is the moſt ſtriking. Every anti-jacobin will, perhaps, not inſtantly concur with this writer on the Britiſh conſtitution, in all his poſitions; but, applauding the ingenuity of ſome, and aſtoniſhed at the boldneſs of others, he will, after having peruſed the whole with a pleaſure ſeldom derived from a political diſſertation, return to the taſk of peruſing it again. And all doubt as to the juſtneſs of the author's argument will ultimately be abſorbed in the admiration of his ability.

ART. CCIII. *The Hiſtory of the Honourable Artillery Company of the City of London, from its earlieſt Annals, to the Peace of* 1802. *By Anthony Highmore, Solicitor, Member of the South-Eaſt Diviſion of the Company.* 8vo. pp. 600. Price 12 *s.* 6 *d.* White. 1804.

HAD it not been the faſhion of the preſent age to write large books and long hiſtories, we ſhould have been at a loſs to know how the affairs of the Artillery Company could have occupied the ſpace of ſix hundred pages. After a careful examination of Mr. Highmore's hiſtory, we are ſatisfied that every thing relating to the Honourable Company, of which he is a worthy member, might have been included in a much ſmaller volume; but if an author is determined to connect, with the memoirs of a particular body, all the leading public events of the country, he will not find it difficult to preſent to his readers an expenſive and intereſting work. Such are the characteriſtics of the volume before us. It contains an account of all the principal political diſputes which have marked the period of the preſent reign; the cauſes, the progreſs, and the termination of all the riots which have diſgraced this great commercial city; biographical memoirs of a great many characters who have been diſtinguiſhed for their patriotiſm, and whoſe names Mr. H. has ſomehow or other contrived to connect with the Artillery Company. The reader will, however, as well as ourſelves, be at ſome loſs to find how a connection between ſome of the perſons mentioned, and the Company, can be made. Who, for inſtance, would have expected to have found, in the Hiſtory of the Artillery Company, an account of the trials of Thomas Hardy, John Horne Tooke, and John Thelwall? Theſe are introduced, becauſe, during that period, this military aſſociation held itſelf in readineſs to aſſiſt the civil power, had there been any neceſſity for the exerciſe of their duties.

But there are facts in this volume, which by no ſtretch of imagination can be made to bear upon the Hiſtory of the Artillery Company; ſuch are, references to a remarkable aurora borealis; to a fanatic ſoldier, who aſſumed the character and pretenſions of a prophet; to the regulation and correction of the calendar; and many others, which muſt have been brought in for one of two purpoſes,—either to increaſe the ſize of the book, or to give it a ſort of intereſt, to which the mere details of a military company could have no pretenſions. Having made theſe preliminary remarks, which we might have extended to almoſt any length, we ſhall preſent to our readers a ſketch of the contents of Mr. H.'s hiſtory.

The firſt two chapters relate to the uſe of arms in England; and it ſhould ſeem, from the manner in which the author commences his work, that it was undertaken, and has been executed in reference to the projected invaſion which for ſome time has threatened the country. With the volunteers who have honourably diſtinguiſhed themſelves in every part of the United Kingdom, Mr. H. connects the exertions of the Artillery Company; a ſociety, the records of which offer the names of many of our Monarchs, the heirs apparent to the crown, the firſt nobility, and thoſe who have ennobled themſelves by probity and valour.

The third and the eight following chapters include the hiſtory of the Artillery Company, from the Conqueſt, to the acceſſion of his preſent Majeſty; and the remainder, which is nearly two-thirds of the volume, is taken up with the details of the Company during the reign of George III.

The oldeſt document to which Mr. H. has referred as attaching to this Company, is the patent of incorporation granted to them by Henry VIII., in the year 1537: and the origin of the Company, we are told, may be traced to a plot of ground, long ſince entirely covered with buildings, near Artillery-lane, in Biſhopſgate-ſtreet, which had been a Roman ſtation, and uſed by that warlike people as a Field of Mars, for the training up of the Britiſh, as well as Roman youth, in the exerciſe of arms.

It is not our intention to follow Mr. Highmore in the details of his hiſtory; the ſtyle is in general appropriate to his deſcriptions; there are, however, inſtances in which he attempts to be very fine, but in theſe no reader of taſte will think he has ſucceeded. Of this kind is a paragraph in page 8.—To the members of the Honourable Artillery Company Mr. H.'s work will afford ſatisfaction, but we doubt whether it can be expected to intereſt any conſiderable portion of the public.

ART. CCIV. *An Account of the Life of James Beattie, LL. D. Profeſſor of Moral Philoſophy and Logic, Aberdeen. By Alexander Bower.* 12mo. pp. 230; price 5s. Baldwins. 1804.

IN a biographical undertaking, a writer ought not only to conſider whether he knows facts ſufficiently important to be communicated to the public; but whether he is acquainted with the claſs of ſituation and character to which his ſubject belongs. The firſt of theſe conſtituents may enable him to convey information; but without the ſecond he cannot deliver inſtruction. In literary biography, one of the great objects is to trace the progreſs of mind, to mark the formation of intel-

lectual

lectual habits, and to inveſtigate the cauſes which gave its peculiar direction to the genius under review. The ſupreme excellence of the higheſt models of this kind of writing—Johnſon's Lives of the Poets, conſiſts leſs in the record of events than in the connection between cauſe and effect, and the general eſtimate of character.

Many, however, are the ſpecimens of biography which are uſeful, and even valuable, though far ſhort of the compoſitions of Johnſon; and which are confined chiefly to plain narrative, without much criticiſm or philoſophy. To this ſecondary rank, the publication before us obviouſly belongs. It tranſmits a clear and agreeable account of Dr. Beattie's hiſtory, without entering deeply into his works. A reader unacquainted with the literary rank of Dr. Beattie, would find it difficult to learn it from the narrative of Mr. Bower; nevertheleſs, in this production, he might ſee when and where the hero was born; how he was educated; what offices he filled; what viciſſitudes he underwent; what books he publiſhed, and how they were received; whom he married; his family; and his death. Thus far the work is uſeful, and affords materials to a writer of higher biographical powers to connect the narration with the philoſophy of Dr. Beattie's life. The following is the outline of the narrative:

James Beattie was born November 5, 1735, at Laurence-kirk, in Scotland. His father was a farmer of conſiderable abilities, with a talent for poetry. He had two ſons, David and James. When the former was eighteen, and the latter ſeven, the father died. The elder brother took a parent's care of the younger; and, though his means were ſcanty, afforded him a claſſical education. At fourteen, James became fit for the Univerſity, was ſent to Aberdeen, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf throughout what is called in Scotch colleges the philoſophy courſe. He was, however, much more eminent for claſſical knowledge and general literature, than for profound ſcience. He never reliſhed mathematical ſtudies, nor does he appear to have dived ſo deeply into metaphyſics, as was then cuſtomary among young men of genius in Scotland. He exhibited ſome promiſing ſpecimens of poetry. In this ſtage of our young ſtudent's progreſs, he diſcovered the kind of literature in which he was deſtined to acquire eminence: but his biographer does not notice this circumſtance. Leaving college, Mr. Beattie became maſter of a grammar-ſchool, firſt in the town of Fordoun, and afterwards in the city of Aberdeen. By this time, though not above twenty-three years of age, he had obtained high reputation as a man of talents and learning, and was become intimately acquainted with Gerard, Campbell,

and Reid, who afterwards were so distinguished in their respective departments of literature. He had contributed various poetical essays to the Scots Magazine; and his performances were so well received, that he was encouraged to attempt a separate publication. In 1761, he first avowedly appeared as an author. His juvenile poems were presented to the public in an 8vo volume, printed and sold by A. Millar, London. Soon after this important epoch in his literary life, he was appointed Professor of Philosophy. On this occasion his biographer thinks it necessary to explain the nature and object of moral philosophy; which we think an unnecessary expenditure of learning, as the subject is very well understood. In the year 1764, he composed his essay on Laughter and Ludicrous Composition; but this work was not published 'till several years after. His next publication was on the Nature and Immutability of Truth; which both the object and execution raised to a very high reputation. His biographer ranks him now with Ferguson and Reid. In this part of the narrative, Mr. Bower gives a short sketch of Dr. Ferguson's literary life; but falls into a mistake in saying that he never lectured in Edinburgh University after his return from being Secretary to the Commissioners sent to treat with America: he lectured four years longer. The next work of Beattie was his Minstrel; which fully supported the reputation he had acquired. Visiting London, he became acquainted with many eminent characters, literary and political; and among them, Johnson and Burke. He was patronized by Lord Mansfield, and introduced to the Ministers of State. He was presented to the King, and obtained a pension. He now published Essays on Memory and Imagination; and on Poetry and Music. By the time he was forty, he appears to have reached the zenith of his literary reputation; and the works which he afterwards published maintained, without increasing, his fame. Some years after, he gave to the world a view of the Evidences of Christianity.

Beattie in his youth had married, and had two very promising sons, each of whom, after having reached the age of manhood, was cut off by a premature death. The father, a man of ardent sensibility, was broken by these domestic losses. The last years of his life passed in bitter affliction, and in seclusion from society. He died on the 18th of August, 1803.

From this sketch, our readers will be able to form a judgment of the materials of the work in question. If, on the one hand, the talents and efforts of Dr. Beattie afford scope for much more masterly biography than Mr. Bower has produced; on the other, we are happy to find that, by an industrious collection of facts, and orderly arrangement, Mr. Bower has done so much

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to facilitate the exertions of greater ability, should such be employed on a subject well deserving of being treated by vigorous talents.

BOOKS

PUBLISHED IN THE MONTHS OF SEPTEMBER & OCTOBER 1804;

With brief Notices of those that are not reserved for more ample Examination.

The History of the Gun-powder Plot: with several historical Circumstances prior to that Event; connecting the Plots of the Roman Catholics to re-establish Popery in this Kingdom. Digested and arranged from authentic Materials. By James Caulfield. pp. 94; price 5*s.*

WE know not on what principle this volume can be called a HISTORY of the Gun-powder Plot: it consists rather of biographical sketches of the principal conspirators, and of some other persons who made a figure in those turbulent times. The work is printed in an expensive style; the engravings that accompany it are numerous, and neatly executed; but the author has not cited his authorities, nor referred to the originals from which the plates were taken. If the reader expect any thing like a connected narrative, or even much information respecting the characters introduced, he will be disappointed. In a note to the life of Queen Mary, we have a catalogue of Martyrs that suffered in the reign of that sovereign, which Mr. C. transcribed from a scarce sheet printed anno 1590.

An Address to all the independent Electors of the United Kingdom, on the recent Middlesex Election, viewed as a grand National Cause. By Walter Honywood Yate, Esq. pp. 47; price 1*s.* 6*d.*

AS the business of the Middlesex Election is shortly to be brought before a high tribunal, we desist from saying more of the present pamphlet than that it is well written and animated. The author is a great admirer of the virtues and patriotism of Sir Francis Burdett, and he assumes that the cause of the worthy Baronet is the cause of every individual of the country.

A brief Inquiry concerning the Origin, Progress, and Impolicy of taxing Attornies, &c. By Charles Ilsley. price 1*s.* 6*d.*

THE language made use of in many parts of this "Brief Inquiry" is such as cannot always be justified: allowance must, however, be made for the feelings which the tax referred to is liable to excite in the breast of the author, both on his own account, and for the sake of his brethren in the profession.

A Defence

A Defence of Attornies: with Reaſons for thinking that no Attorney who duly conſiders the preſent critical Situation of his Country, or who has at heart the increaſing Reſpectability of the Profeſſion, will object to be taxed; &c. &c. pp. 52; price 2*s*.

THE chief object of this pamphlet, which is, in fact, an anſwer to the former, is to defend the tax which the legiſlature has impoſed upon attornies, upon the principle that it is calculated to render the profeſſion more reſpectable; and that it would be dangerous to embarraſs the meaſures of government by raiſing any objections to the payment of it.

Reflections on Duelling. By Rowland Ingram, B.D. pp. 104; price 2*s*. 6*d*.

THE excellent tract before us may be recommended to general notice, but we fear that the ſtill voice of reaſon will not be heard by thoſe who are inclined to brave the laws of the land, and to ſet at defiance the principles of the Chriſtian religion, by appealing, to every petty affront, to the weapons of deſtruction. Mr. I. is anxious to rouſe the attention of the public; he urges arguments which are likely to have weight with perſons of different deſcriptions. His appeal to his countrymen as having pledged themſelves to ward off the threatened danger of a foreign enemy, will exhibit the ardour with which he writes on this important ſubject:

"Call them not Britons, who would recede from before the menaces of their deteſted and defied enemy, to depicture a ſhrivelled likeneſs of his outrageous tranſports, in the inglorious extravagance of ſelf-deſtruction. Call him not a Briton, who, in this time of unparalleled emergence, would relinquiſh his poſt—the poſt of efficient duty and real fortitude—to exhibit ſuch a pitiful diſplay of brute hardihood. The lives of my brave countrymen without exception—of us all pledged to nobler purpoſes; they are pledged, if in the face of real, inevitable neceſſity, to be laid down without a murmur; if otherwiſe, to be cautiouſly preſerved, and anxiouſly cheriſhed, for the preſervation and protection, and ſupport of every thing for which man can wiſh to live, or can juſtly dare to die. In ſtrictneſs, however, the preſent criſis, although it certainly lends great enforcement to our arguments, can ſcarcely be ſaid to add to the number of them; for, even in the boſom of tranquil peace, we ſtill ſhould have a country, ſtill ſhould have friends and fellow-creatures to ſerve, and a Creator to obey; and the queſtion of acceptance will not turn ſo much upon the nature or extent of our ſervices, as upon the devotion of the heart and affections, with which they are performed."

A Sermon, preached at Chicheſter, May 27, 1804, on Occaſion of the Death of Mr. Joſeph Godman. By William Youatt. pp. 28; price 1*s*.

THE greater part of this diſcourſe, which is animated and well compoſed, is devoted to the recommendation of benevolence, a virtue which, it appears, the deceaſed had diſplayed through the courſe of a very long life. To the Sermon is annexed a biographi-

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cal tribute to the memory of Mr. G. which was written by a surviving relation, and which has been already in print.

A compendious View of the Christian Doctrine: a Sermon preached at Newbury, Berks. By David James. pp. 29; price 1 *s.*

MR. J. assumes, that the peculiarity of evangelical worship is, "that no sinner, whether Jew or Gentile, can have access to God, as a reconciled Father, but through the mediation of Jesus Christ, and the assistance of the Holy Spirit:" and from this position he is led to consider the several characters of the Father, Son, and Spirit, chiefly in a practical view: avoiding, as much as possible, those points of controversy on which Christians are divided. The discourse is plain and serious, and suited to the capacities of hearers in general.

Reflections on the Exercise of private Judgment in Matters of Religion: a Discourse delivered before the Annual Assembly of Dissenting Ministers. By John Corrie. pp. 30; price 1 *s.*

THIS discourse, being delivered by a dissenting minister to an assembly of dissenters, may be expected to contain much that is peculiar to them and to their principles. There are, however, passages in it that are applicable to persons of all persuasions, and which, if we mistake not, will interest every reader. Of these we shall transcribe what Mr. C. says respecting revelation:

"Revelation is in itself something so astonishing and awful, as to claim the utmost attention of every reflecting mind. It is a suspension and controul of those laws by which the great Author of Nature has chosen that the universe should be directed. It is an interference of the master artist to finish and to perfect his wonderful production. It is an interruption of that regular succession of causes and effects, which, on all other occasions, has proceeded with such perfect uniformity. So astonishing indeed, as on this ground alone to have been by some rejected as incredible. Do you believe that this astonishing event has really occurred? Do you admit that in a system framed by perfect wisdom and benevolence—full of admirable contrivance—proceeding with such beautiful and precise regularity—apparently so sufficient in itself for all those great and wise purposes for which it is designed—do you admit that in such a system a suspension, an interruption, has taken place; that something has been infused, been added, by Almighty power itself? Nothing surely in the whole course of nature or history can call so loudly and so justly for your notice."

Conversations introducing Poetry; chiefly on Subjects of Natural History. For the Use of Children and young Persons. By Charlotte Smith. 2 vols. pp. 400; price 7 *s.*

THESE interesting Conversations are carried on between Mrs. Talbot and her two children, George and Emily. A specimen from one of them will be more satisfactory to our readers than any description

ſcription that we can give. Speaking of the Lady-bird, Mrs. Talbot ſays:

"There are a great many ſorts of them. Some have more, and others leſs of theſe ſpots; ſome are dark red, and now and then I have ſeen them black, with red ſpots. In ſhape, you ſee, theſe little inſects reſemble the chafer we ſaw yeſterday. Obſerve, he unfolds his upper wings, ſpreads his gauze-like pinions underneath, and prepares to fly. Farewell, Lady-bird; we are now going to read ſome verſes about you, made, I ſee, in the ſame meaſure as the nurſery lullaby, which I remember when I was a child:

TO THE LADY-BIRD.

O Lady-bird, Lady-bird, why doſt thou roam
So far from thy comrades, ſo diſtant from home?
Why doſt thou, who can revel all day in the air,
Who the ſweets of the grove and the garden can ſhare;
In the fold of a leaf, who can form thee a bower,
And a palace enjoy in the tube of a flower;
Ah why, ſimple Lady-bird, why doſt thou venture,
The dwellings of man ſo familiar to enter?
Too ſoon you may find that your truſt is miſplac'd,
When by ſome cruel child you are wantonly chas'd;
And your bright ſcarlet coat, ſo beſpotted with black,
May be torn, by his barbarous hands, from your back:
And your ſmooth jetty corſelet be pierc'd with a pin,
That the urchin may ſee you in agonies ſpin;
For his boſom is ſhut againſt pity's appeals,
He has never been taught that a Lady-bird feels.
Ah, then you'll regret you were tempted to rove
From the tall climbing hop, or the hazle's thick grove,
And will fondly remember each arbour and tree,
Where lately you wander'd, contented and free:
Then fly, ſimple Lady-bird! fly away home,
No more from your neſt and your children to roam.

EMILY. I ſhall be very glad to learn theſe lines, Mamma, for I think them extremely pretty. But ſhould I not firſt be perfect in thoſe on the Roſe, which you deſired me to write yeſterday after I had dreſſed the flower-glaſſes with thoſe beautiful groupes of roſes?

MRS. TALBOT. Perhaps you can already repeat them: try.

EMILY. Queen of fragrance, lovely Roſe,
Thy ſoft and ſilken leaves diſcloſe:
The winter's paſt, the tempeſts fly,
Soft gales breathe gently through the ſky;
The ſilver dews and genial ſhowers
Call forth a blooming waſte of flowers;
And lo! thy beauties now uncloſe,
Queen of fragrance, lovely Roſe!
Yet ah! how ſoon that bloom is flown,
How ſoon thy bluſhing charms are gone!
To-day thy crimſon buds unveil,
To-morrow ſcatter'd in the gale.

Ah!

Ah! human bliſs as ſwiftly goes
And fades like thee, thou lovely Roſe.

GEORGE. You did not make thoſe lines yourſelf, Mamma?

Mrs. TALBOT. No, George; I found them in ſome collection of Poems, and changed a few words, and, I believe, omitted ſome of the ſtanzas.

Tricot Angliciſed; or, the Latin Syntax; as uſed in the late Univerſity of Paris. Adapted to the Uſe of Engliſh Students. By G. Reynolds. price 1*s.* 6*d.*

THIS work, which is recommended by the tranſlator as a ſubſtitute for the Syntax of the Eton Grammar, does not appear to us to have any peculiar claims to public notice above many Grammars long in uſe in the ſchools of Great-Britain: of courſe, we ſee no reaſon for going to Paris for an article which may be as well or better ſupplied by our own country.

A Philoſophical Inquiry into the Properties of Nature. By C. Turner, LL.D. price 4*s.* 6*d.*

IF this Inquiry be intended for the young, we warn them againſt the multitude of errors with which it abounds in almoſt every part.

Definitions, Maxims, Proverbs, and Precepts, on Grammar, Arithmetic, Natural Philoſophy, Geography, &c.; propoſed for Copies in Penmanſhip, and for Exerciſes in Grammar, &c. By John Holland. price 1*s.* 6*d.*

MR. H. merits the thanks of all inſtructors of youth, for this judicious ſelection of ſentences, which cannot fail of being ſubſtituted in the place of thoſe which have been commonly uſed, but which are often deſtitute of any meaning, and, of courſe, can inculcate no good principles.

An Engliſh Spelling-Book, with Reading Leſſons adapted to the Capacities of Children. By Lindley Murray. pp. 216; price 1*s.* 6*d.*

AN Engliſh Spelling-Book from the author of the "Engliſh Grammar," will undoubtedly excite conſiderable expectation from thoſe who have been in the habit of uſing the latter, and we doubt not that, in proceſs of time, the Spelling-Book will have as many admirers as the Grammar has already obtained. It is comprehended under three general diviſions: the principal object of the *firſt* part is to teach an accurate pronunciation of the elementary ſounds: the *ſecond* part is intended to afford the learner aid in pronunciation, as well as in orthography: and the *third* part conſiſts of words leſs familiar to children than thoſe of the preceding parts; of rules of ſpelling and pronunciation; and of miſcellaneous chapters, calculated to give the learner a radical knowledge, and diverſified views of the ſubject. We are glad to ſee that Mr. M. has been careful in the right diviſion of the ſyllables in his ſpelling, and that he has not followed the example of others, by introducing into his little book a maſs of irrelevant matter.

The

The Book of Trades, or Library of the Useful Arts. 2 vols. pp. 270; price 6*s*.

IN these volumes are descriptions of about forty different trades, to each of which is affixed an engraving illustrative of the business described. The precise object of this work does not appear from any preface or advertisement of the author; it cannot fail, however, of being useful to young persons, who will thereby be enabled to examine the various processes carried on in different manufactories, with great advantage. The wool-comber and spinner are the trades first noticed; in these articles the different kinds of wool are described, also the various operations which it undergoes from the time it is taken from the sheep's back till it is manufactured into worsted or cloth. A description of the implements made use of in the business is given, and the wages which each workman usually earns are mentioned.

Collection of Popular Stories for the Nursery; newly translated and revised, from the French, Italian, and old English Writers; adorned with numerous Plates. 2 vols. pp. 360; price 5*s*.

THE reader is here presented with the stories of Whittington and his Cat; the Children in the Wood; Fortunatus; Robin Hood; Blue Beard; Cinderella; Hop o' my Thumb; and several others of the same kind. With these we have been long acquainted in one shape or other: of the moral tendency of many of them, little can be said. They are certainly well adapted to engage the attention and strike the imagination of children at a very early period; but we doubt whether these advantages are not more than counterbalanced by the false and even vicious impressions that they are calculated to leave. We do not mean to apply this to all the stories collected in these volumes, and therefore it would have been better to have printed them singly, that judicious parents and instructors might, according to their own judgments, make choice of those only which seem adapted to instruct and amuse. The present translation and revision are very superior to those of former editions.

The History of Domestic Quadrupeds, with entertaining Anecdotes: adorned with Plates. pp. 135; price 2*s*. 6*d*.

THE object of this little volume is, we are informed by the compiler, "To pave the way to works of greater labour and expence, and to remove from the eye and the heart whatever can offend delicacy or corrupt innocence:" and for this it is very well calculated, and may be safely recommended.

Canine Biography; or curious and interesting Anecdotes of Dogs; interspersed with Sketches from Natural History. 2 vols. pp. 170; price 4*s*.

NOTWITHSTANDING the title of this work, there is but a small portion of it devoted to the Dogs: it contains anecdotes relating to many other animals, and facts connected with various departments of natural history. For young people, more care is requisite with regard

regard to order and arrangement than is to be found in these volumes: they are not, however, destitute of amusement and instruction.

The Lake of Killarney. A Novel. By Anna Maria Porter, Author of Octavia, Walsh, Colville, &c. 3 Vols. pp. 940; price 9*s.* Longman and Rees, London. 1804.

THE novel from which we can extract *innocent* amusement is to us acceptable, though it should present only the sufferings of sensibility, the sorrows of the heart, and the comparatively playful cares of love. That the Lake of Killarney belongs to this class of fictions, is not to be disputed; but, unlike most of its *kindred volumes*, the interest which it creates in the first chapter is progressive to the last. It inculcates pure morality, it breathes elevated sentiment; it awakens no sympathies that are not honourable to the writer, and friendly to the cause of virtue. Rose de Blaquiere and Felix Charlemont are ostensibly the hero and heroine of Killarney; but many other personages are introduced, who are perhaps equally entitled to our affection and esteem. Of these, Colville Barry and Mrs. Fitzpatrick are pre-eminent. We do not recollect to have ever been introduced to so many *dangerous* men and fascinating women. Man, woman, and child, they are almost all invested with supreme beauty and transcendant grace:—that the ladies should be thus distinguished, is perhaps just; that the *hero* should be resulgent as an Apollo, is *very allowable;* but that all his compeers should be equally the favourites of nature—should all be so amazingly *handsome*, is a circumstance calculated to promote the malice of *certain* uncouth readers.

If the elegant writer have been somewhat too elaborate of outward ornament, she has not, however, neglected the superior claims of mind. She has paid our sex the compliment to form of them *a band of choice spirits*, whose words are vows: whose oaths are oracles; their tears pure messengers sent from their *hearts;* their hearts as far from fraud, as heaven from earth. In return for this tribute, may the man to whom she shall assign her destiny, be generous as her Fitzpatrick, noble as her Barry, constant as her *Charlemont*, and honourable as her *Glenroy:* to sum all, may she be as happy as Rose, whose felicity is well described in a letter to Mrs. Fitzpatrick!

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